

TEXT FOR CLASS USE IN FRESHMAN ENGLISH

Leon Eubanks, Teacher

Letter — page 39

Required Texts

A copy of this text.

Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, Fifth Edition.

Outside Readings

Three articles from Harper's, Scribner's, the Atlantic Monthly, the New Republic, or the Saturday Review of Literature must be reported on orally each ~~XXXX~~ semester: on Friday or Saturday of the fourth week of the semester; at the same time of the ninth week; and at the same time of the fourteenth week. Three short stories, articles, or news accounts from these or any other library magazines must be reported on each semester in the form of a précis: on Friday or Saturday of the sixth, twelfth, and fifteenth weeks of the semester. All other outside readings will be assigned from time to time in class.

General Aims

The general aims for the first semester will hinge around the mastery of words, the ability to construct correct and effective sentences, and the mastery of the mechanics of writing. In connection with the first, units on the Use of the Dictionary, Spelling, Vocabulary Building, Diction, and Grammar will be employed. In connection with sentences, two units will be employed: Sentences--including the various kinds of phrases, clauses, and sentences--and Diagramming--the mechanical representation of the relations of sentence elements to one another. On the third part, units will be presented on the rules of: Capitalization, Punctuation, and Other Mechanics of Writing.

If words and sentences are mastered, an immediate improvement should be noticeable, not only in the student's expression in all his studies and in his daily life, but also in his actual grasp of the meaning of material read; for words and sentences are the vehicles not only of expression but also of understanding. The mechanics of writing are essential to effective written composition.

During the second semester, practical application of the units mastered during the first semester will be effected in written paragraphs, oral reports, a term paper, and the four traditional forms of discourse--exposition, description, narration, and argument. In order that the student may be assembling material, the unit on the Research Article will be presented first during the second semester. In this unit definite instruction will be afforded the student as to the proper manner of taking notes and the correct forms for footnotes and bibliographies. The research article will be used, not only to give the student an opportunity to give definite application on a large scale to his newly acquired knowledge of sentence structure and the mechanics of writing, but also to afford training in the development of capacity for assembling and organizing material. The subject moreover, will be chosen with a definite view to its intrinsic value to the student. In the unit on the Paragraph, the various methods of developing paragraphs will be presented, together with examples of some of these methods, and the student will write paragraphs illustrating the various methods of development. In the units on Exposition, Description, Narration, and Argument, the nature of the four forms of discourse and of each, together with the application of rules already learned in original papers embodying these four forms, will be the method of presentation.

Testing and Grading

There will be sixteen units of work--and six the second. Each unit will be given a grade, and the total number of units will count for the final grade.

the semester. This daily grade will be averaged with the examination to form the final grade for the semester's work. In arriving at the grade for each unit, the work done in the classroom, together with daily tests, exercises, and reading reports, will be averaged with the test on the unit.

All grades except the final grade reported to the registrar will be computed in figures. The grades to the registrar are computed in letters. The following are the grade equivalents: 92-100, A; 83-91, B; 74-82, C; 65-73, D; 60-65, E; below 60, F. The grade E indicates a conditional failure, and F indicates a necessity for repeating the course.

FIRST SEMESTER

WORDS

Five units will be employed in the study of words: Use of the Dictionary, Spelling, Vocabulary Building, Diction, and Grammar.

UNIT ONE--USE OF THE DICTIONARY

Time--Two weeks--September 8-18.

Assignment--Pages lv-xix and pages xxii-xxvi in Webster's Collegiate Dictionary--to be studied intensively; pages 1175-1274 in Webster's--to be examined cursorily, and to be referred to, as well as the main part of the dictionary, in finding the answers to exercises.

The dictionary is the most important single aid to the acquisition of knowledge. The frequent and proper use of the dictionary is very helpful in all subjects studied. Therefore it is very important that a thorough knowledge of the correct usage of the various elements and features of a good dictionary be obtained in the beginning of the year's work.

Although there are many good hand dictionaries on the market, WEBSTER'S COLLEGIATE DICTIONARY is at least one of the best obtainable. It has been adopted for freshman class use, and each freshman is required to own a individual copy. No freshman will be allowed to enroll in this course until he has procured a personal copy of this dictionary. Only the Fifth Edition, which can be secured at the bookstore, will be acceptable.

Pronunciation--Learn at least three words illustrating each of the symbols representing the various sounds of the language, as given on page vii. Study pages ix-xix intensively. Notice carefully the lower half of page viii.

Study intensively xxii-xxiv.

Familiarize yourself with the various entries at the back of the dictionary.

Exercises on the use of the dictionary will be furnished free to each student, with assignments from them on compounds, syllabication, accent, diacritical marks, etymology, meaning of words, etc.

UNIT TWO--SPELLING

Time--One week--September 20-25.

Assignment--Pages xx-xxi in Webster's Collegiate Dictionary. The assignment must be studied intensively and thoroughly.

Learn to spell all the following words:

analyze	bachelor	changeable
anxiety	baptize	changing
apology	becoming	chaperon
appropriate	believe	characteristic
aquatic	benefit	chauffeur
arguing	benefited	chautauque
argument	brilliant	competition
athlete	British	confidant (masculine)
athletic	bureau	confidante (feminine)
athletics	cafeteria	commissar
auxiliary	candidate	consciousness
awkward	ceiling	contemptible

contemptuous	jewelry	prairie
corps (squad)	jew's-harp	precede
corpse (<u>dead body</u>)	jonquil	precedence
costume (<u>dress</u>)	journey	precedents
custom (manner)	judiciary	prejudice
courteous	judicious	privilege
courtesy	juvenile	professor
criticism	kiln	pronunciation
criticize	maintenance	prophecy (noun)
deceased (dead)	maneuver	prophesy (verb)
diseased (<u>ill</u>)	miniature	recommend
diphtheria	mischievous	reference
discipline	murmur	referred
dormitories	naive	relieve
ecstasy	naphtha	religious
eligible	notoriety	repetition
eliminate	nucleus	restaurtant
embarrass	occur	rhetoric
environment	occurred	rheumatism
exaggerate	occurrence	rhyme
exhilaration	optimism	rhythm
extraordinary	optimistic	ridiculous
fascinate	origin	sacrifice
grammar	parallel	sacrilegious
grievous	paralysis	sergeant
heinous	paralyzed	shriek
hypnotize	parliament	sicge
hypocrisy	parliamentary	sieve
illiterate	permissible	simultaneous
impromptu	perseverance	soliloquy
intercede	persistent	supersede
irrelevant	Philippines	weird
irresistible	Filipino	yacht
Japanese	physical	zephyr
jealousy	physician	zoology

UNIT THREE--VOCABULARY BUILDING

Time--One week--September 27-October 2.

The primary motive in this unit will be the establishment of the habit of word mastery.

Copy the following words, being careful to spell them correctly. In parenthesis immediately after each word, indicate its pronunciation. Immediately after the parenthesis, indicate the part of speech. Then in brackets indicate its etymology. Make a dash after the brackets and give the most common meanings of the word. Make another dash and write a sentence illustrating the use of the word in its most common meaning.

EXAMPLE: obdurate (ə'b dū rāt; also, esp. in poetry,
ə'b dū'rāt), adj. [L. ob-completely + durare to harden, fr. durus hard] --Hardened in feeling; unyielding; harsh; firm; He was obdurate in his stand against the measure.

agony	eschatology	proxy
assiduity	grotesque	psychiatrist
benignity	gullibility	sabotage
Bellerephon	haphazard	senility
biometrist	impervious	stereotyped
boycott	integrated	supercilious
canaille	juggernaut	superflucus
cataclysm	juxtaposition	tantalize
catastrophic	kleptomaniac	trivial
Chimera (or not cap.)	lethargic	Vulhalla
conspicuous	myriad	Vicaricus
crucial	neologism	volition
dearth	neophyte	wassail
dubious	classification	xenophobia
duodenum	palcentologist	zoolgy
eccentric	parvenu	zumurgy
egotism	pathology	
entomology	peplus	

1234.

contemptuous	jewelry	prairie
corps (<u>squad</u>)	jew's-harp	precede
corpse (<u>dead body</u>)	jonquil	precedence
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eliminate	nucleus	restaurant
embarrass	occur	rhetoric
environment	occurred	rheumatism
exaggerate	occurrence	rhyme
exhilaration	optimism	rhythm
extraordinary	optimistic	ridiculous
fascinate	origin	sacrifice
grammar	parallel	sacrilegious
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conspicuous	myriad	Vicaricus
crucial	negligism	velition
dearth	neophyte	wassail
dubious	ossification	xenophobia
ducdenum	palcentologist	zoology
eccentric	parvenu	zymurgy
egotism	pathology	
entomology	Pegasus	

The following lists are follow-up material on the last two units. You will be given short daily tests on these each Monday or Tuesday on the dates given below. Learn to spell the first group in each instance and learn the meaning and the etymology of the second group.

<u>Octcber 11-12</u>	<u>October 17-18</u>	<u>October 24-25</u>
<u>Spelling</u>	<u>Spelling</u>	<u>Spelling</u>
absence	answer	barn
absorb	anxious	borne
abscrition	part	boundary
absurd	apartment	breath (noun)
accessible	apiece	breathe (verb)
accident	apparatus	bridal (nuptial)
accidentally	apprent	bridle (for a horse)
accommodate	appearance	Britannica
acccompanied	appetite	Briton
acccompanying	appreciate	buoyant
accumulate	approaching	burglar
accustom	arctic	bury
achieved	arise	bus (Buss mean kiss)
acquainted	arising	business
acquitted	arithmetc	calendar
across	around	can't
additionally	arouse	canvas (cloth)
address	arranging	canvass (solicit votes)
advice (noun)	arrangements	capital (city)
advise (verb)	arriving	capitol (building)
adviser	arrival	career
Aeneid	article	carry
aerial	ascend	carriage
aggravate	ascent (a going up)	caucus
aghast	assent (agreement)	cemetery
aisle (in church)	assassin	certain
isle (island)	assassinate	shoes
alleys	association	choosing
allies	attack	chose
alliteration	attacked	chosen
allotted	attendance	chord (of music)
all right	audience	cord (string)
allusion	balance	clothes (garments)
almost	banana	cloths (kinds of cloth)
already	Baptist	coarse (not fine)
altar	barbarous	course (path, series)
alter (change)	bare	colonel
altogether	barely	column
alumna (fem. sing.)	barren	coming
alumnae (fem. pl.)	baring	commission
alumnus (mas. sing.)	barring	commit
alumni (mas. pl.)	based	committed
always	bearing	committee
amateur	before	committing
among	beggar	common
amount	berth (bed)	comparatively
angel	birth	compel
angle	boarder	compelled
annual	border	competent

MEANING AND ETYMOLOGY

abstruse	biased	connotation
absurdity	bolshivism	consummate
accessory	bache	corroborate
adolescent	candid	credence
adroit	cardinal	credulous
agile	caricature	crerate
ambiguous	casual	desiccated
antiquated	cerulean	discreet
antithesis	chaos	efficacious
<u>argumentum ad hominem</u>	chronological	eleemosynary
august (adj.)	clarify	elucidate
August	cliche	entrance
	comatose	epicure

November 15-16

dual (twofold)
duel (fight)
dying (ceasing to live)
dyeing (coloring)
eighth
elicit (to draw out)
illicit (unlawful)
eminent
emphasize
encouraging
enemies
equipped
ere (before)
ever (ever)
especially
etc. (<u>et cetera</u> , and so forth)
everybody
exceed
excellence
excellent
exceptionally
exercise
exhaust
exhilarate
existence
expense
experience
experiment
explanation
facilities
familiar
February
fiery
finely
financial
financier
forcibly
forebode
foreboding
forehead
foreign
foremost
forfeit
forth (forward)
fourth (4th)
forty
four
fourteen
frantically
fraternities
freshman
freshmen
friend
fulfill
fundamental

November 8-9

<u>Spelling</u>	<u>Spelling</u>
complement (completing part)	deep
compliment (pleasing speech)	defendants
complimentary (gracious)	definite
comrade	definition
comradeship	dependant
concede	dependent (adj.)
conceit	depth
conceive	descend
concentration	descent (slope)
concern	decent (proper)
confidence	dissent (disagreement)
confident	describe
confidentially	describing
confidently	description
conquer	desert (waste place)
conqueror	dessert (food)
conscience	desirable
conscientious	desperate
conscious	destroys
consciousness	determine
considered	develop
consistent	device (n.)
continually	devise (v.)
continuously	diary (daily record)
control	dairy (milk room)
controlled	dictionary
convenience	didn't
cool	die
KNOWLEDGE	difference
cooly	different
copy	digging
copied	dining room
copies	dinning
corner	dirigible
council	disappear
councilor	disappoint
counsel	disaster
countries	disastrous
creep	discussed
crept	diseases
crowd	dissatisfied
cruelty	dissipate
crystal	dissipation
cylinder	distribute
dealt	divide
debater	divine
deceit	division
deceived	doctor
decided	doesn't
decision	don't
	dormant

MEANING AND ETYMOLOGY

epigram	ignominy	lucid
episode	inane	lucrative
epithet	incompatible	ludicrous
esoteric	incongruous	machinations
ethereal	incredible	maniacal
etymology	inevitable	mannerism
Fascist	inscrutability	mascot
fastidiousness	inirritable	microcosm
fatuous	infallible	millenarian
fidelity	innuendo	mutiny
flagrant	interrogator	naive
fragile	intuition	naivete
futile	irrelevant	nil
galore	jargon	noisome
guerilla	lamentable	nordic
gyration	littoral	nuances
histrionic	lozenge	nullify

November 22-23

November 29-30

December 6-7

Spelling

furniture
gambling
gamboling
gauge, gage
generally
genius
ghost
government
grabbing
grandeur
grief
grievance
guard
guest
guidance
hadn't
handkerchief
handle
handsome
harass
having
hear (v.)
here (adv.)
height
heroes
hinder
hindrance
hop
hopping
hope
hoping
humorous
hungry
hurriedly
hurrying
identify
imaginary
imagine
imitation
immediately
impetuous
incident
incidentally
increase
incredible
independent
indictment
indispensable
infinite
influential
innocence
instance
instant

Spelling

intellectual
intentionally
interested
interfere
interpreted
interrupted
invitation
its (pos. pro.)
it's (cont. it is)
itself
January
jersey (jacket)
Jersey (cattle)
kindergarten
krieg, or kleig,
 light
knew (pret. know)
knowledge
laboratory
laid
later
letter
lead
led
legitimate
lesser
lesson
liable
library
lightening (making
 less heavy)
lightning
likely
literature
livelihood
liveliness
loneliness
loose
lose
losing
loyalty
lying
magazine
maintain
mantel (chimney shelf)
mantle (cloak)
manual
manufacturer
marriage
marries
mathematics
mattress
meant (pret. mean)

Spelling

merely
metal (e. g., iron)
mettle (spirit)
meddle (to interfere)
millionaire
minute
misspell
momentous
mournful
muscle
mysterious
mystery
naturally
necessary
negroes
neither
nevertheless
nickel
niece
nine
nineteen
ninety
ninetieth
ninth
noticeable
nowadays
oblige
obstacle
occasion
occasionally
o'clock
officer
omit
omitted
omission
oneself
operate
opinion
oportunity
organization
original
outrageous
overrun
pageant
paid
pamphlet
particular
particularly
partner
passed (pret. pass)
past (adj., adv., prep.)
pastime
pattern

MEANING AND ETYMOLOGY*****

objective
obvious
obsession
ominous
opus
ostensible
ostracism
pagoda
panoramic
paradoxical
pathology
paucity
peerage
persiflage
perspicacity
petitio principii

phenomenon
philology
phoenix
plagiarist
plangent
platitude
plausible
pompous
pretentious
prognosticate
protein
provocative
pungent
quarterings
raison d'être
reiter: te

reminiscent
satyr
scenario
seance
shanghai
skeptic
sophisticated
stirra
strategic
suave
subjective
subtle
surreptitiously
tshoo
taitsman
technical

December 13-14

17-18

December 20-21

17-18

January 3-4

18-19

Spelling

peace (tranquillity)
 piece (part)
 perceive
 perform
 perhaps
 permanent
 personal (private)
 personnel (persons
 collectively em-
 ployed)
 persuade
 plain (adj., clear, or n., a flat region) or schedule
 plane
 planned
 pleasant
 politics
 porch
 pore (v., read intently, sentinel
 or n., minute opening) or separate
 pour (as water)
 portrayed
 possess
 possible
 practically
 practice
 preference
 preparation
 presence
 presents (gifts)
 probably
 procedure
 proceed
 professional
 promenade
 prominent
 pronounce
 propeller
 proved (never proven)
 psychology
 pumpkin
 pursue
 pursuing
 quantity
 quiet (still)
 quite (entirely)
 quiz
 quizzes
 really
 recede
 receipt
 receive
 recognize
 reign (rule)
 rein (of a bridle)
 rain (precipitation)
 replies
 representative

Spelling

reservoir
 respectability
 right (not wrong)
 rite (ceremony)
 write (as a letter)
 wright (workman)
 safety
 sandwich
 scarcely
 scene (view)
 seen (p. p. of see)
 sense (knowledge)
 scents (odors)
 since (after, because)
 sentence
 shone (pret. of shining)
 shown (p. p. off show)
 similar
 sincerely
 site (place)
 cite (refer to)
 sight (view)
 sophisticated
 sophomore
 source
 speak
 specifically
 specimen
 speech
 statement
 stationary (adj.)
 stationery (n.)
 statue (monument)
 stature (height)
 statute (law)
 stopped
 strange
 strength
 stretch
 striking
 studying
 succeed
 successful
 suffrage
 suit (of clothes)
 suite (of rooms)
 summer
 superintendent
 suppress
 surely

Spelling

surprise
 surround
 syllable
 symmetry
 synonym
 technical
 temperament
 temperature
 tendency
 their (pos. of they)
 there (not here, or an
 expletive)
 therefor (for it)
 therefore (for that
 reason)
 thorough
 those
 thousandths
 through (prep. and adv.)
 threw (pret. of throw)
 tired
 to (prep., as to town)
 too (adv., as too tired)
 together
 toward
 track (mark)
 tract (area)
 tragedy
 transferred
 tries
 truly
 Tuesday
 twelfth
 typical
 tyrannically
 unconscious
 undoubtedly
 university
 unnecessary
 unprecedented
 until (but till)
 unusual (four syl-
 lables)
 usually (four syl-
 lables)
 vegetable
 vengeance
 view
 villain
 weather
 whether
 who's (who is)
 whose
 won't (will not)
 want (wish)
 zealot
 Zouave

-----MEANING AND ETYMOLOGY *-----

temerity
 terminology
 terrain
 tirade
 unique
 verbatim

vernacular
 vigilance
 vitiate
 vivacious
 waive

wampum
 wanderlust
 xenia
 xylotomy
 Yankee

UNIT FOUR--DICTION

Time--Two weeks--October 4-16.

Learn the meaning of the following terms: diction, archaic, barbarism, colloquialism, corruption (in language), dialect, diminutive, obsolete, obsolescent, provincialism, slang, vulgarism, coinage, impropriety.

3/5

Following are expressions that should be avoided, together with the expressions that should be used in their places:

WRONGRIGHT

accidently-----	accidentally
ain't-----	am not, isn't, aren't
anywheres, nowheres, somewheres-----	anywhere, nowhere, somewhere
auto-----	automobile
awful (meaning <u>very bad</u>)-----	dreadful
being as-----	because, since
bunch (as of people)-----	group
bust, bursted, busted-----	burst
but what-----	but that (I don't know but that you're right.)
calculate-----	think
Lean't hardly-----	can hardly
can't help but-----	can't help, can but
can't seem, cannot seem-----	seem not (I seem not to carry the ball right. I seem unable to carry the ball right. NOT: I cannot seem to carry the ball right.)
claim-----	assert
complected-----	complexioned
could of-----	could have
different than-----	different from
disremember-----	do not remember
drownded-----	drowned
drunk, drunks-----	drunk person or persons
enthuse, enthused-----	be enthusiastic, become enthusiastic
every which way-----	in every direction
expect-----	suppose, suspect
firstly-----	first
funny-----	odd, queer, strange
gent, gents-----	gentleman, gentlemen
get ahead of-----	surpass, get the better of
get hold of-----	take possession of, learn, master
get up-----	organize, direct, incite
go back on-----	repudiate, abandon
good (as an adverb)-----	well
guess-----	think, suppose
had ought, hadn't ought-----	ought, shouldn't
haven't hardly-----	have hardly
heap-----	many
hisself-----	himself
human, humans-----	person, human beings
in back of-----	behind
in order for-----	in order that
inside of-----	inside
inside of an hour-----	within an hour
invite-----	invitation
just exactly-----	just, exactly
kind of, sort of-----	rather (I am feeling rather sick.)
kind of a-----	kind of (This is the kind of hat I need.)
like (as a conjunction)-----	as (Do this as I do.)
lose out, win out-----	lose, win
lots of-----	a lot of, <u>or better</u> , many, much
mad-----	angry, vexed
mighty-----	very (I am very glad to see you.)
might of-----	might have
more preferable-----	preferable
most (as an adverb)-----	almost (He is almost grown.)
must of-----	must have
no account-----	worthless
not a one-----	not one

nowhere near-----not nearly
 off of-----off
 ought to of-----ought to have
 outside of-----outside, aside from
 outsmart-----outwit
 overly-----over
 over with-----over
 party (except in legal lan-
 guage)-----person
 pep (except in college yells)--vigor, energy, vivacity, animation
 piano-----piano lessons
 plan on-----plan to, intend
 plumb-----completely
 proven-----proved
 providing-----provided (I shall go, provided
 that you go.)
 put in-----spend (He spent three hours studying
 raise (children)-----rear, bring up
 real (as an adverb)-----really, very (I shall be there
 very early.)
 right smart-----very, considerable
 ruination-----ruin
 same (as a pronoun, except in
 legal language)-----Repeat the noun or revise the
 sentence.
 seldom ever-----seldom, hardly ever
 snappy (as: Make it snappy.)---hurry
 so, such (as intensive modi-
 fiers)-----very (NOT: He was so tired. BUT:
 He was very tired. NOT: That is
 such a pretty dress. BUT: That
 is a very pretty dress.)
 stand for-----allow
 sure end, try and-----sure to, try to
 swell-----interesting
 take a try at-----try
 take in-----attend, go to, see
 this here, that there, these
 here, those there-----this, that, these, those
 too, very (before past par-
 ticiples)-----too much, very much (He is very
 much disgruntled.)
 to suspicion-----to suspect
 tote-----carry
 two first, two last-----first two, last two
 use to could-----once could, used to be able
 violin-----violin lessons
 ways-----way (It is a long way to Austin.)
 where-----that (I read that the game has
 been postponed.)
 which (in referring to persons)-who, that
 while (except when the term means
 during the time that)-----although, but, and, whereas (Jane
 is industrious, whereas Ruth
 is shiftless.)
 would liked, should liked-----would have liked, should have
 liked (I should have liked to
 visit in Washington while I was
 on my vacation.)
 would of-----would have
 you was-----you were

.....

Find out from your dictionary the status of each of the following terms--whether it is a good term, a slang expression, a provincialism, a colloquialism, an obsolete or archaic term, or a dialectic expression. Notice also the particular shade of meaning of the term, together with the different meanings.

as	gentlemen	per	tortuous
but	got	phase	transpire
couple	lady	proposition	unique
fine	mean	quite	yell
fix	nice	so	zip

Strong expressions such as the following should be avoided in formal discourse, either oral or written. They should not be overworked in ordinary conversation. They soon become stale.

a honey	for crying out loud!	to be up against it
a peach	kale	to be wise to
a swell outfit	keen	to dope it out
a wise guy	Oh, yeah?	to fact by with
babe, baby	skip it	to have a hunch
cutie	skirt	to put one over
dope	sob stuff	to quill
dough	tightwad	You're telling me!
flapper	to beat it	You said a mouthful.

The following clipped or abbreviated expressions should be avoided; although some of them are permissible in colloquial discourse, even then they should not be overworked.

ad (advertisement)	exam (examination)	photo (photograph)
bike (bicycle)	grad (graduate)	polit (political science)
chem (chemistry)	gym (gymnasium)	prof (professor)
doc (doctor)	lab (laboratory)	prom (promenade)

Distinguish between the expressions in each group below:

ability, capacity	deprecate, depreciate
abbreviated, abridged	differ from, differ with
accept, except	discomfit, discomfort
access, excess	discover, invent
admit, confess	disinterested, uninterested
advise, inform	distract, detract
affect, effect	dominate, domineer
allude, refer	due to, because of
allusion, illusion, elusion	each other, one another
alternative, choice	emigrate, immigrate
altogether, all together	endorse, sanction
amateur, novice	equable, equitable
anxious, eager	exceptional, exceptionable
apt., likely, liable, subject	excuse, pardon, forgive, condone
balance, rest, remainder	further, further
beside, besides	fatal, fatal
between, among	female, woman, lady
can, may	fewer, less
censor, censure	formerly, formally
character, reputation	generally, usually
common, mutual	graceful, gracious
complementary, complimentary	healthful, healthy
comprise, compose	home, house, residence
conscience, conscious	homicide, murder, manslaughter
contemptible, contemptuous	human, humane
continual, continuous	hung, hanged
council, counsel	inaugurate, begin
credible, creditable, credulous	infer, imply
criticize, censure	ingenious, ingenuous
custom, habit	juvenile, puerile, youthful, boyish
lay, lie	practicable, practical
learn, teach	principal, principle
like, as	prosecute, persecute
luxuriant, luxurious	replace (by), substitute (for)
majority, plurality	respectfully, respectively
notorious, noted	rise, raise
partake of, participate in	school, college, university
per cent, percentage	sit, set

UNIT FIVE--GRAMMAR

Time--Two weeks--October 18-30.

All words are grouped, according to the functions which they perform in the sentences in which they are used, into eight classes or parts of speech. The eight parts of speech are:

NOUN--The name of some subject of discourse, as a person, place, thing, quality, idea, or action--as, building, tree, boy, greed, swimming.

The change in the form of a word to indicate a change in its meaning is called inflection. A change in the form of a noun or a pronoun is called declension; in a verb, conjugation; and in an adjective or an adverb, comparison. The other three parts of speech--prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections--are never inflected.

As nouns and pronouns have the same properties, they will be treated together.

Nouns are usually classed as common or proper. Special types of nouns, which would still be either common or proper, are: collective, concrete, and abstract. They are defined as follows:

A common noun is the name belonging to all the members of a class of objects--that is, the name common to all members of that class--as, desk, paper, boy, street, field.

A proper noun is a name distinguishing some individual person, place, or thing from others of the same class--as, Mary, Boston, Cassiopeia, Broad Street, Rocky Mountains.

A collective noun is a noun naming a collection or aggregate of individuals by a singular form--as, assembly, army, jury.

A concrete noun is the name of something that can be perceived by one of the five senses--as, sand, floor, odor, fragrance, dog.

An abstract noun is one that names a mental, emotional, or spiritual concept or state--as, love, courage, hatred, truth--or some quality or condition of an object--as, depth, strength.

Following are the classes of pronouns:

Personal--I, you, he, she, it, we, they, me, him, her, them, us, my, mine, your, yours, hers, its, our, ours, their.

Relative--who, whose, whom, which, that (when used to introduce a subordinate clause).

Interrogative--who, whose, whom, which, what (when used in asking questions).

Demonstrative--this, that, these, and those (when used without nouns; if used with nouns, they are adjectives).

Indefinite--few, many, everyone, somebody, each, either, neither, all, other, any, some, etc. (when used without nouns; some of these may be used with nouns and when so used are adjectives).

Intensive--myself, yourself, himself, herself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves, etc. (when used to emphasize the one being spoken of)--as: He himself will do the work. You caused the trouble yourself.

Reflexive--The same pronouns as above, when they become the object of their own action--as: He hurt himself. They are a drawback to themselves.

The four properties of nouns and pronouns are person, number, gender, and case.

There are three persons--first person, indicating the person

speaking I, my, mine, me, we, our, ours, us); second person, indicating the person spoken to, and usually understood (you, your, yours); third person, indicating the person spoken of (all pronouns except those listed in connection with the first and second persons and all nouns).

There are two numbers--singular (indicating one) and plural (indicating more than one).

There are four genders--masculine (indicating the male sex), feminine (indicating the female sex), common (indicating either sex or both sexes--class, the person, a student), and neuter (indicating that the noun or the pronoun has no sex at all--tree, desk, crayon).

There are three cases--nominative, objective, and possessive.

The nominative and objective cases are alike in the case of nouns.

The usual constructions in which the nominative case is employed are as follows: subject of the sentence (He is going home); predicative nominative (It is I); in apposition, when the word with which it is in apposition is in the nominative case (The offenders, they who have already caused much trouble, should be imprisoned); noun of direct address (Where are you going, Sam?); noun of exclamation (Fire! The house is on fire!); nominative absolute, a word having no grammatical relationship to the rest of the sentence (The task having been finished, he asked for his discharge).

The usual constructions in which the objective case is employed are as follows: direct object of a verb or a verbal (He killed the bird); indirect object of a verb--an indirect object tells to whom, to what, for whom, or for what an action is performed (The class carried him some flowers); object of a preposition (He threw off his coat); subject of an infinitive (We want him to go, also); complement of an infinitive having a subject (They thought him to be me); in apposition with a noun or pronoun which is itself in the objective case (He called James, the captain); objective complement--a substantive coming after the direct object and meaning the same (The class elected Sam president).

The usual constructions in which the possessive case is employed are: to show possession (The man's coat, your watch) and to show connection (the day's work, for conscience' sake, his week's pay).

As a general rule, the possessive case is not used with inanimate objects, a phrase with of being employed in its place: thus, the bottom of the desk (not: the desk's bottom); the pages of the book (not: the book's pages). Exceptions are: time's delay, earth's surface, sun's heat, ship's mast, etc.

Nouns may be used as adverbs to denote time, place, amount, distance, etc.: He went to town yesterday. He carried the little girl home. The boy weighs one hundred pounds. They walked a mile. Such constructions are known as adverbial nouns.

Nouns and pronouns have an adjectival function in the possessive case (the man's appearance, his pencil). Nouns are sometimes otherwise used as adjectives: He works in a shirt factory. The telephone conversation disturbed his rest.

The noun (nouns, or group of words used as a noun) for which a pronoun is used is called the antecedent of the pronoun (The man who spoke here will remain in Newton County for three days). A pronoun may be the antecedent of another pronoun: He who would win must fight.

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender--but not in case (The girl said that she had bought her book).

The declension of the personal pronouns is indicated below:

	<u>First Person</u>			<u>Second Person</u>		
	(Masculine or Feminine)			(Masculine or Feminine)		
	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>		<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	
Nominative----	I	we		you	you	
Possessive----	my, mine	our, ours		your, yours	your, yours	
Objective----	me	us		you	you	
	<u>Third Person</u>			<u>Plural</u>		
	<u>Singular</u>			(Masculine or Feminine)		
	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.			
Nominative----	he	she	it	they		
Possessive----	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs		
Objective----	him	her	it	them		

Special Notes on Nouns and Pronouns

A cognate object expresses an idea similar to that of the transitive verb with which it is used: He lived a life of contentment. He ran the race gracefully.

A retained object is a direct object or an indirect object which remains as the retained object when one of the objects becomes the subject of the sentence and the verb changes from the active to the passive voice: The class gave Ruth a medal. Ruth was given a medal by the class--A medal was given Ruth by the class.

A clause or an infinitive phrase may be used as a retained object: We told them that the letter had arrived--They were told that the letter had arrived. The judge commanded him to appear in court--He was commanded to appear in court.

Appositives may sometimes be introduced by as or of: We always thought of him as a hobo. The county of Newton, the state of Mississippi, a feeling of shame, the title of secretary.

A phrase or a clause may be used as an objective complement: Jackson's soldiers took him for a Federal general. You may name her what you wish.

An objective complement is sometimes introduced by as: The coach appointed Joe as the manager.

Adjectives and adverbs are sometimes used as nouns: The race is not always to the swift. From there we went to Jericho.

The expression "Let's you and me go to town" means "Let us, you and me, go to town." Therefore the objective form is used.

An apparently illogical, but nevertheless well-established, idiom is the double possessive--as: Is he a friend of yours? She is a friend of my mother's.

Nearly all the indefinite pronouns are singular and therefore have singular pronouns referring to them and singular verbs used with them--Everybody, everyone, anybody, somebody, someone, each, neither, either. When the antecedent refers to a mixed group, males and females, the masculine pronoun should be used: Everybody in the class had his pencil ready.

Singular pronouns likewise follow words having every, each, any, either, or neither coming before them as adjectives: Every person was ready to do his duty.

Two singular nouns connected by either...or or neither...nor should be followed by a singular pronoun or by a singular verb. Two plural nouns so used require a plural pronoun or verb. If one of the nouns is singular and one of them plural, the pronoun and the verb are governed by the nearer one. Examples: Either the mother or the daughter is willing to do her duty. Neither the officers nor the enlisted men have complained about their reductions in pay. Neither the teacher nor the students have completed their tasks. Either the players or the coach is to blame.

The pronoun following a collective noun as an antecedent and the verb used with the collective noun are singular if the group which it names is thought of as acting as a unit. They are plural if the group is thought of as acting as individual members: The team has remained in Dallas for its final period of instruction. The herd of cows have scattered in all directions down the hillside, looking for their calves.

Although we, you, and they may properly be used indefinitely in some instances, they should not be used indiscriminately. One is the more generally accepted form.

The word it has a variety of idiomatic constructions:

(1) Indefinitely and impersonally in statements about the weather, time, etc.: It is going to rain. It is warm tonight. It is nearly dark. It is time to go.

(2) As an introductory word to bring into a more prominent place some word in the sentence: It is ten miles to the nearest town. It was ~~XIX~~ in the same church that Tobe was married thirty years ago.

(3) As an expletive used with a delayed subject: It is a delight to carry this message. (To carry this message is a delight.) It is true that he was hungry. (That he was hungry was true.)

(4) As an expletive standing for the direct object: He found it easy to learn.

(5) As an impersonal object after certain verbs: He lorded it over his neighbors. We will fight it out on this line if it takes all summer.

(6) In reference to persons--contrary to the ordinary rules for

the agreement of pronouns: It is I. It was her sister. It is they who are to blame. (It is ordinarily third person singular, neuter gender. In the sentences just given, I, a first person pronoun, refers to it. Sister, a feminine noun, refers to it, and they, a plural pronoun in the third person, likewise refers to it. In such constructions, it may refer indefinitely to words of any person, number, or gender.)

From the sentences below pick out the nouns and pronouns and place them in a table similar to the model given:

As he turned the curve, he saw the tribesmen advancing toward him. Although many had seen the accident, few were able to relate accurately all the circumstances of the case. The candidate is a man of whom we had heard little until recently.

Name of noun or pronoun	Find	Person	Number	Gender	Case	Construction
he	per.	third	sing.	masc.	nom.	sub. of clause
curve	com.	third	sing.	neuter	obj.	obj. verb turned
he	per.	third	sing.	masc.	nom.	sub. of clause
curve	com.	third	sing.	neuter	nom.	obj. verb turned

LESSON 311 VERBS

According to form, verbs are of two kinds--regular and irregular. Regular verbs are those that form their past and past participle forms by adding d, ed, or t to the present form. Irregular verbs are those that form their past and past participle forms in some other way. (Regular: love, loved; walk, walked; sweep, swept; weep, wept. Irregular: go, went, gone; see, saw, seen; think, thought, thought.)

According to use, verbs are of two kinds--transitive and intransitive. Transitive verbs are verbs of action with an expressed receiver of the action. Intransitive verbs are those (1) that do not express any action at all or (2) that do not have an expressed receiver of the action they express. Transitive: Sarah learned her lesson. (Learned expresses action and has an expressed receiver--lesson.) The letter was mailed by Frank. (Was mailed is a verb of action and has an expressed receiver of the action--letter.) Intransitive: He ran down the street. (Ran is a verb of action, but it has no receiver of the action. A verb of this kind--one of action with no receiver of the action--is called a complete verb.) James is a good boy. (The verb is does not express action at all, but expresses a state of being. It connects James with boy and is, therefore, called a copulative verb--one that couples.)

The properties of a verb are person, number, voice, tense, and mood.

A verb agrees with its subject in person and number. The agreement in person affects a few of the personal pronouns only. For instance, I am is proper instead of I is, so that the verb agrees with the subject in person--in both cases the verb agrees in number. Likewise, he is is correct instead of he am. In number, nouns follow the rule consistently. Pronouns, however, have exceptions. I and you, regardless of the fact that they are singular (you, of course, can also be plural), require plural verbs (with the exception of two forms of the verb to be--I am and I was.) Examples: I go, I do, you are, you stay. But: He goes, she does, it is, he stays.

Verbs have two voices--active and passive. (Copulative verbs, because they express no action, really have no voice. They are commonly classed, however, as being in the active voice.) The active voice indicates the subject as doing the acting, and the passive voice indicates the subject as receiving the action. Active: He caught the fish. (The subject he did the catching.) We learned the assignment in an hour. (The subject we did the learning.) Passive: The fish was caught by him. (The subject fish receives the action of the verb.) The assignment was learned by us in an hour. (The subject assignment receives the action.) Notice that some form of the verb to be is always used as an auxiliary verb (helping verb) with the passive form of a verb.

Was by itself, however, is not passive. As: He was happy. Was, in this sentence, is the main verb. The subject he does not receive any action.

Verbs have six tenses--present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect. The first three are called the simple tenses, and the last three are called the perfect tenses. In the active voice, no helping verbs are required in the present and past: I go, I went.

In the future, shall and will are the auxiliary verbs. To indicate mere futurity, shall is used with the first person (I and we) and will with the second and third persons (you, he, she, it, they). As: I shall go to school tomorrow. You will be able to take eighteen quarter hours. He will lead the parade. To express willingness, determination, or a promise, will is used with the first person. As: I will carry the package. We will never enter that door again. I will do as you say. To denote determination or a command on the part of the speaker, shall is used with the second and third persons. As: You shall pay the last obligation! I command that he shall be hanged until he is dead, dead, dead. In questions, the form that is anticipated in the answer is used in all persons. As: Shall he raise the window? (Answer--He shall--command.) Shall I read the poem? (Answer--You shall--command.) Will he go? (Answer--He will--futurity.)

The perfect tenses are formed with auxiliaries derived from the verb to have. The word perfect, in the sense here employed, means finished or completed. The action indicated by a verb in the present perfect tense is thus finished or completed at the present time. Example: I have done the work. (The verb have done indicates that at the present time the work is finished.) Now let us suppose that the work was finished yesterday or some other time in the past. Then we would say, "I had done the work," indicating that the work was already completed at some time in the past (past perfect tense). The future perfect tense indicates the action as finished at some time in the future. Examples I shall have done the work by the time you arrive.

Mood is the distinction of form in a verb to express the manner in which the action or state it denotes is conceived, whether as fact, or as a matter of assumption, volition, intention, possibility, etc. The moods commonly recognized for the English verb are the indicative, imperative, and subjunctive. The indicative mood is used in making statements of fact or in asking questions about facts. The imperative mood expresses a command or an entreaty. The subjunctive mood makes a conditional statement, expresses a wish, or indicates doubt and uncertainty. Examples:

Indicative: I shall go. Is he going?

Imperative: Close the door, please. Study page ten carefully.

Subjunctive: If he were here, he would vote against the bill (condition contrary to fact). I move that the motion be laid on the table (after parliamentary motions). I wish I were in college (in a wish). I desire that she leave the work alone (after verbs expressing commands, recommendations, desire, necessity, obligation, or propriety). Though he were sincere, I should not trust what he says (in concessions which are merely suppositions).

Note that in the subjunctive the plural form of verbs is always used. For the present form of to be, be is used. (If he be guilty, then who is honest?) The sign of the subjunctive is if, but this term is not always used with the subjunctive. There are no future nor future perfect tenses in the subjunctive.

There are three conjugations--regular, progressive, and emphatic. The regular conjugation is the one most commonly employed. The progressive conjugation indicates continuous action. The verb form always has an ing ending to either the main verb (in the active voice) or the auxiliary verb (in the passive voice). Thus: He is carrying the package to the depot. (The verb is carrying does not indicate merely one act but rather continuous action.) The package is being carried to the depot. (The helping verb, being, takes the ing ending in the passive voice.) The emphatic conjugation has as the auxiliary verb the verb to do. Thus: He does go. We did go. This conjugation is used for stress.

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The verbals--participles, gerunds, and infinitives--have the qualities of a verb in that they express action, being, and

condition; yet they cannot make a statement by themselves. Consequently, regular verbs are called finite verbs--complete within themselves; verbals are not complete within themselves, but must be used in sentences containing finite verbs.

A participle is a verb form used as an adjective to modify a noun or a pronoun. Its conjugation follows:

	<u>ACTIVE VOICE</u>	<u>PASSIVE VOICE</u>
PRESENT*	writing	being written
PAST-----		written
PERFECT-----	having written	having been written

EXAMPLES: The man writing the book is Dr. J. M. Lewis. (Writing has action like a verb, but it modifies man--tells what man--like an adjective.) The girl, having written the scornful letter, began to feel sorry. (Having written refers to girl.) The letter, being written, was put in the envelope and mailed. (Being written refers to letter, and as letter receives the action of the participle, being written is therefore in the passive voice.) The letter, written before the man made his apology, was very bitter. (Again letter receives the action of the participle, and written is in the passive voice.) The letter, having been written by an attorney, was not legally incriminating. (The action expressed in the verbal was completed at the time of the main verb, and the word to which the verbal refers--letter--receives the action of the verbal; therefore having been written is in the passive voice and in the perfect tense.)

A fragmentary sentence containing a participle but no finite verb is called a dangling participle, a construction which should be studiously avoided. Example: The poor old man, having been robbed of all his earthly possessions by greedy relatives. It is seen that the sentence should not end with relatives; instead a comma should come after relatives and the sentence continue--was forced to go to the poor house.

Sometimes a participle, together with its modifiers, its object, and its object's modifiers, is used with a noun which has no direct grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence. Such a construction, called a nominative absolute, must be used with a sentence--it must never be used alone. Thus: All the shops being closed because of the strike is not a complete sentence; it is only a nominative absolute phrase. By putting a comma after strike, we may make a complete sentence of it by adding we were forced to postpone our shopping until a later day. When thus finished, the sentence has a finite verb--were forced. Shops in the construction above is called the nominative absolute, because it has no grammatical construction with the rest of the sentence.

A gerund is a verb form resembling the participle in every respect except that it has no past form, used as a noun--in nearly all the constructions that substantives have--subject of the sentence, object of the verb, object of a preposition, subjective complement, in apposition. Its conjugation is as follows:

	<u>ACTIVE VOICE</u>	<u>PASSIVE VOICE</u>
PRESENT*	writing	being written
PERFECT-----	having written	having been written

EXAMPLES: Writing a letter is sometimes distasteful (Subject of the sentence). He denied having written the check (object of the verb). This document, after having been written in the blood of our forefathers, must not be lost (object of the preposition after). His greatest delight is watching the steamships come in (subjective complement). His main objective, balancing agriculture with industry, was achieved (in apposition).

An infinitive, usually preceded by to (not always), is the present form of the verb used, in most cases, as a noun. In rare cases, the infinitive may modify a noun, a verb, or an adjective. Its conjugation follows:

	<u>ACTIVE VOICE</u>	<u>PASSIVE VOICE</u>
PRESENT-----	to write	to be written
PERFECT-----	to have written	to have been written

EXAMPLES: He stopped at the hotel to write a letter (modifies the verb stopped). The letter, to be written at such a time, would upset the plans (modifies the noun letter). To have written the bogus check was bad enough, to say nothing of getting a poor blind man to cash it (subject of the sentence).

To as the sign of the infinitive is frequently omitted, especially after such verbs as help, make, bid, feel, see, hear, know, need. EXAMPLES: You need not do the work now. The breeze makes us feel better.

Construct a table similar to the one below and fill in with the verbals in the sentences which follow:

- David, having been deceived once by the salesman, was in no mood for further dealings with the man.
- Mrs. Johnson wished to be seen with the First Lady.
- James denied having failed the course.
- Charged with having been put in jail, Sam began preparing his defense.
- To go into the cage at the noon hour meant death.
- The table having been set, the guests were invited in.
- Mary wanted to know where the car was being carried.
- Running swiftly through the yard, Ted overtook the man.

VERBAL	KIND	TENSE	VOICE	CONSTRUCTION
having been deceived	part.	perf.	pas.	modifies the noun David
to be seen	inf.	pres.	pas.	object of the verb wished

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Following is the entire conjugation of the verb to carry (principal parts: carry, carried, carried):

ACTIVE VOICE		REGULAR CONJUGATION		PASSIVE VOICE
			<u>Indicative Mood</u>	
			<u>Present Tense</u>	
I carry	We carry	I am carried		We are carried
You carry	You carry	You are carried		You are carried
He carries	They carry	He is carried		They are carried
		<u>Past Tense</u>		
I carried, etc.		I was carried, etc.		
		<u>Future Tense</u>		
I shall carry	We shall	I shall be		We shall be carried
You will carry	carry	carried		
He will carry	You will	You will be		You will be carried
	carry	carried		
	They will	He will be		They will be carried
	carry	carried		
		<u>Present Perfect Tense</u>		
I have carried	We have car-	I have been		We have been carried
	ried	ried	carried	
You have carried	You have car-	You have been		You have been carried
	ried	ried	carried	
He has carried	They have car-	He has been		They have been carried
	ried	carried		
		<u>Past Perfect Tense</u>		
I had carried, etc.		I had been carried, etc.		
		<u>Future Perfect Tense</u>		
I shall have	We shall have	I shall have been		We shall have
carried	carried	carried		been carried
You will have	You will have	You will have been		You will have
carried	carried	carried		been carried
He will have	They will have	He will have been		They will have
carried	carried	carried		been carried
		<u>Subjunctive Mood</u>		
		<u>Present Tense</u>		
If I carry	If we carry	If I be carried		If we be carried
If you carry	If you carry	If you be carried		If you be carried
If he carry	If they carry	If he be carried		If they be carried
		<u>Past Tense</u>		
If I carried, etc.		If I were carried, etc.		
		(Also: If he <u>were</u> carried)		
		<u>Present Perfect Tense</u>		
If I have carried, etc.		If I have been carried, etc.		
(Also: If he <u>have</u> carried)		(Also: If he <u>have</u> been carried)		
		<u>Past Perfect Tense</u>		
If I had carried, etc.		If I had been carried, etc.		
		(Also: If he <u>had</u> been carried)		
		<u>Imperative Mood</u>		
Carry	Carry	Be carried		Be carried
		<u>Verbs</u>		
		(See page 16)		
		<u>PROGRESSIVE CONJUGATION</u>		
		<u>Indicative Mood</u>		
		<u>Present Tense</u>		
I am carrying		I am being carried		
You are carrying		You are being carried		
He is carrying, etc.		He is being carried		

	Past Tense	
I was carrying, etc.		I was being carried, etc.
	Future Tense	
I shall be carrying, etc.	No passive	
	Present Perfect Tense	
I have been carrying, etc.	No passive	
	Past Perfect Tense	
I had been carrying, etc.	No passive	
	Future Perfect Tense	
I shall have been carrying, etc.	No passive	
	<u>Subjunctive Mood</u>	
	Present Tense	
If I be carrying, etc.	No passive	
	Past Tense	
If I were carrying, etc.	If I were being carried, etc.	
(Also: If he <u>were</u> carrying)	(Also: If he <u>were</u> being carried)	
	Present Perfect Tense	
If I have been carrying, etc.	No passive	
(Also: If he have been carrying)		
	Past Perfect Tense	
If I had been carrying, etc.		
	<u>IMPERATIVE MOOD</u>	
Be carrying	Be carrying	No passive
	<u>Verbals</u>	
	Infinitives	
Present: to be carrying		
Perfect: to have been carrying		

EMPHATIC CONJUGATION

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

I do carry	We do carry	
You do carry	You do carry	No passive
He does carry	They do carry	

Past Tense

I did carry, etc.		No passive
-------------------	--	------------

Subjunctive Mood

Present Tense

If I do carry	If we do carry	
If you do carry	If you do carry	No passive
If he do carry	If they do carry	

Past Tense

If I did carry, etc.		No passive
----------------------	--	------------

Imperative Mood

Do carry	Do carry	Do be carried	Do be carried
----------	----------	---------------	---------------

~~In the sentences below pick out the verbs and fill in a table similar to the model below:~~

Henry was catching the fish when we arrived.
 If that were his attitude, he would not be in Congress today.
 He did say that, and I have sufficient evidence to prove that he did.
 If the bill passes, he will have spent all his efforts in vain.
 David will be sweeping the floor while we go for the mattress.

Verb	Kind as to form	Conju- gation	Per- son	'Num'- ber	Voice	Tense	Mood
was	irreg.	trans.	prog.	3rd	sing.	active	past
arrived	regular	intrans.	reg.	1st	pl.	active	past

Learn the principal parts (present, past, and past participle) of the following verbs. The first form, when two or more are given, is usually preferable.

PRESENT

PAST

PAST PARTICIPLE

Abide	abide	abided
Am	was	been
Rise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke, awaked	awaked, awoke
Awaken	awakened	awakened

bear (to bring forth)	bore	born
bear (to carry)	bore	borne
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bend	hent	hent
beseech	besought	besought
bet	bet	bet
bid (to command)	bade	bidden
bid (to offer)	bid	bid
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
broadcast (to scatter)	broadcast	broadcast
broadcast (in a radio sense)	broadcast, broad- casted	broadcast, broad- casted
build	built	built
burn	burned, burnt	burned, burnt
Burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
chide	chid, chided	chid, chidden, chided
cleave (adhere)	cleaved	cleaved
cleave (split)	cleft, cleaved	cleft, cloven
clothe	clothed, clad	clothed, clad
come	came	come
creep	crept	crept
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug, digged	dug, digged
dive	dived	dived
do	did	done
drag	dragged	dragged
draw	drew	drawn
Dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
drawn	drowned	drowned
dwell	dwelt, dwelled	dwelt, dwelled
eat	ate	aten
fall (to drop)	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
fell (to cut down, as a tree)	felled	felled
fight	fought	fought
fled	fled	fled
flow	flowed	flowed
fly	flew	flown
forget	forgot	forgetten, forgot
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hang (to put to death)	hanged	hanged
hang (to suspend)	hung	hung
heat	heated	heated
hide	hid	hidden
hold	held	held
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lend	lent	lent
lie (to recline)	lay	lain
lie (to tell an untruth)	lied	lied
light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
loose	loosed	loosed
lose	lost	lost
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mow	mowed	mowed, mown
overflow	overflowed	overflowed
pass	passed	passed, past

The superlative degree, used in comparing three or more objects (in the case of adjectives) or verbs, adjectives, or adverbs (in the case of adverbs), is formed by adding -est to the simple form of the adjective or adverb or by using most (sometimes least) before it: fastest, nearest, most radically inclined, most beautiful (least beautiful).

A few adjectives and adverbs have irregular comparisons. In the list below, those items marked with an X are commonly used as both adjectives and adverbs. The others are merely adjectives.

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
bad, evil, <u>x</u> ill, <u>x</u> badly	worse	worst
<u>x</u> far	farther, further	farthest, furthest
good, <u>x</u> well	better	best
hind	hinder	hindmost, hindermost
<u>x</u> late	later, latter	latest, last
<u>x</u> little	less, lesser	least
<u>x</u> much, many	more	most
<u>x</u> near, nigh	nearer	nearest
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
top	-----	topmost
-----	inner	inmost, innermost
-----	outer	outmost, outermost
-----	utter	utmost, uttermost

Certain adjectives and adverbs are logically incapable of comparison: circular, round, perfect, absolute, immortal, faultless, unique, equal, entire, whole, conclusive, unanimous.

Adjectives are of two general kinds--descriptive (a wise ruler, a beautiful girl) and limiting (this book, many people). Nouns and pronouns, when they modify substantives, become adjectives (a dog collar, a Jackson newspaper, the man's suit, Mary's hat, his coat, a man whose character..., which book do you need? that boy, some vegetables, another job).

The adjectives a, an, and the are called articles. A and an are known as indefinite articles; the is called a definite article. A is generally used before words beginning with consonants and an is generally used before words beginning with vowels: a tree, an elephant.

Adjectives, according to the different ways in which they modify substantives, are: attributive (an expensive car, a rainy day, a gracious hostess), appositive (the man, good and true, never wavered), predicative (the boy is sick). Adjectives are, moreover, sometimes used as objective complements, modifying the object and finishing the verb: He washed the car clean.

Adverbs usually express manner (he replied angrily), place (they found the treasure here), time (she did the work yesterday), and degree (he is very diligent in his work).

The greater number of adverbs are formed by the addition of -ly to an adjective, a participle, or, sometimes, a noun: highly, pressingly, purposely; many are formed by the adding of the suffixes -ward, -wards, and -wise: homeward, upwards, clockwise; still others are formed by using prepositional prefixes: afresh, beneath, aboveboard, perhaps, tonight. Regular prepositions are sometimes used as adverbs: The father came between. Come in. He fell down. She turned around.

The verbs seem, appear, become, grow, turn, prove, smell, taste, look, feel, sound, etc. take adjective complements: Tom looks healthy. David grew thin while he was in the hospital. The milk tastes sour. His face turned red.

SPECIAL EXERCISES IN GRAMMAR

Agreement of Subject and Predicate

Either you or I am to blame. (The verb agrees with the part of the subject which is nearer--in both person and number.)

Neither the girl nor her mother realizes the true condition. (Two singular subjects connected by either ... or or neither ... nor take a singular verb.)

Each of the men was ready to strike. (Each is the subject--not men, which is the object of the preposition of.)

The manager, together with all the players, was dissatisfied with the decision. (The phrase together with all the players should not be allowed to interfere with the agreement of the subject, manager, and the verb, was dissatisfied.)

The boys, accompanied by their father, were on their way to the circus. (Notice that boys is the subject.)

A very important part of the student's college life is the extra-curricular activities in which he engages. (The verb must agree with the subject ~~NAME~~ --part, in this sentence--and not with the subjective complement, activities.)

There were a book, a reading lamp, and a typewriter on the desk. The subject is book...lamp...typewriter, a plural subject requiring a plural verb.)

A child who has many brothers and sisters doesn't usually become greedy. (The subject of doesn't is child, not brothers and sisters, which are the objects of the verb has in the subordinate clause.)

He is one of those players who always accuse the referee of favoritism when they lose. (The subject of accuse, who, has as its antecedent players, a plural noun; therefore accuse and they are plural.)

Agreement of Pronouns with Their Antecedents

A person should not offer advice unless he is asked to do so. (The antecedent of he is person, a singular noun.)

Neither John nor Jerry had his gun ready. (The elliptical construction, if completed, would be: Neither John had his gun ready, nor did Jerry have his gun ready.)

Every student should hand in his work on time. (The antecedent of his, student, is singular.)

Each of them will receive his diploma in June. (Each, not them, is the antecedent of the pronoun his.)

Proper Case Uses

That is the way with you and me today. (Me is the object of the preposition with and is, therefore, in the objective case.)

It was they who set the fire. (A predicate nominative is always in the nominative case.)

If I were she, I should ask for a raise in salary.

Have you heard of his singing at the concert? (If him were used, the implication would be that you had heard (or not heard) of him, not of his singing.)

Between you and me, I think he is wrong. (Object of preposition between.)

Is Sam as tall as he? (As he is tall is understood.)

He is a man whom I know to be honest. (Whom is the subject of the infinitive to be and is, therefore, in the objective case.)

I thought Sarah to be her. (Her is a complement after an infinitive that has a subject and is, therefore, in the objective case, just as the subject of the infinitive is in the objective case.)

Sarah was thought to be she. (She, in this case, is a complement after an infinitive, but the infinitive has no subject. The complement refers to Sarah, the subject of the sentence--in the nominative case; therefore she--the nominative form--is used.)

This is the man whom you saw in New Orleans. (Whom is the object of the verb saw.)

Smith is the man who I think will be elected. (Who is the subject of the verb will be elected--not the object of think.)

We asked Merrill to judge who had written the best essay. (Who is the subject of the subordinate clause, not the object of the infinitive to judge.)

UNIT SIX--SENTENCES

Time--Two weeks--October 31-November 12.

A sentence is a group of words so related as to convey a completed thought with the force of asserting something or of asking, commanding, exclaiming, or wishing; structurally considered, a group of words forming one or more predictions (in the latter case, either linked in a series or subordinated one to another) taken as a unit thought; considered as a part of a larger

unit of composition, a group of words expressing one completed step in a course of thinking.

According to use, sentences are classed as declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory. A declarative sentence states something as a fact: The class met yesterday. An interrogative sentence asks a question: Where are you going? An imperative sentence expresses a command or an entreaty: Hand me the book, please. An exclamatory sentence expresses strong feeling or emotion, as delight, fear, or surprise: The house is on fire!

According to form, or construction, sentences are simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex. A simple sentence contains only one complete statement or question--it has only one group of words having a subject and a predicate: James carried the book home. A compound sentence is one which contains two or more independent clauses or statements: We received the letter, and the arrangements were made at once. A complex sentence is one that contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses: We shall return when the car has been repaired. A compound-complex sentence is one that contains two or more independent clauses and one or more subordinate clauses: John sent the letter by Mary to mail because he was eager for it to set off in the afternoon mail; Mary forgot the letter and carried it in her book for a week.

Sentences are composed of the various parts of speech, of course. These parts of speech are grouped into ~~EXEMPTED~~ phrases and clauses. A phrase is a group of related words having neither a subject nor a verb. A clause is a group of related words having a subject and a verb.

Every sentence and every clause must have a subject (that about which something is said) and a predicate (that which is said about the subject). A simple subject is the noun or pronoun (or a group of words used as a substantive) about which something is said. A complete subject includes the simple subject and all its modifiers and other adjuncts. Thus in this sentence--The commanding general of France quickly brought order out of confusion--general is the simple subject and The commanding general of France is the complete subject. In the same sentence, brought is the simple predicate--the verb--and quickly brought order out of confusion is the complete predicate--the verb, its object, and their modifiers and other adjuncts. The subject and its adjuncts normally come first in a sentence, with the verb and its adjuncts following. However, the sentence may be introduced by either of the following: the verb (Carried to all the nations was the solemn Roman decree), the object (These beneficial measures he stubbornly fought), an adverbial word, phrase, or clause (Out into the night he rushed), it and there as introductory words (There are many ways to avoid trouble).

Let us now take each sentence element and examine it more minutely. The main kinds of phrases are prepositional phrases, participial phrases, gerundive phrases, infinitive phrases, verb phrases, and nominative absolute phrases. A verbal phrase consists of the verbal, its object (if any), modifiers, and all other adjuncts. The verb phrase consists of the main verb and its auxiliaries: will go, has been gathered; shall have gone. The nominative absolute phrase consists of the nominative absolute and its modifying participle (expressed or understood), together with all their adjuncts: The snow having fallen, we were unable to continue our journey. The flight over, we went in all directions. ("The flight being over" is understood.) A prepositional phrase consists of the preposition, its object, and the object's modifiers: in the pond, over the winding roads. According to their use, there are two kinds of prepositional phrases--adjective and adverbial. (A prepositional phrase is sometimes used as a noun.) An adjective phrase modifies a substantive: The station agent of Newton has been calling. The house in the valley has been built since last year. An adverbial phrase modifies a verb and sometimes an adjective: He was going down the road. Tom is enthusiastic about the results.

Make a table similar to the one on the next page. In it place the underlined phrases in the following sentences:

Into the river he ~~swam~~ and caught the drowning boy by the hair.

Having forgotten his watch, James could not imagine what time of the night it was.

He wanted to know perfectly his part in the play.
 By the time you arrived, he will have caught enough fish for our lunch.
 The applicants filed out of the office, the job having already been given away.

PHRASE	'KIND'	CONSTRUCTION
Into the river	'prep., adv. phrase modifying verb leaped.'	
having forgotten his watch part!	modifies the noun James.	

An independent clause is not dependent upon the rest of the sentence for its construction or meaning. A subordinate clause depends upon the rest of the sentence for its construction; it either modifies some word in the main clause or ~~XX~~ is used as a substantive--as the subject of the main clause, as the object of the verb, etc.

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
 Independent, or main, clauses are joined in either of five ways: (1) by the simple, or coordinating, conjunctions (and, but, or, for, nor); (2) by conjunctive adverbs following semicolons (therefore, then, nevertheless, hence, however, consequently, moreover, likewise, furthermore, besides, thus, yet, accordingly); (3) by conjunctive adverbial phrases following semicolons (for example, for instance, that is, in other words, on the other hand, on the contrary, as a result, for this reason, in like manner); (4) by the use of the semicolon alone; and (5) by the use of the colon alone or with a conjunctive adverb or conjunctive adverbial phrase. EXXXXXX Examples in the order just listed follow:

You must pass your work, or the coach will not let you play in the game.

The book has been lost for a week; consequently, we have not been able to study.

I may be away from the office next week; for this reason I should like to have the work handed in tomorrow.

James always had his work ready; he was the most punctual boy in school.

Animals surpass man in many respects: birds fly naturally, whereas man must have a mechanical contrivance; dogs have exceptionally highly developed senses of smell, whereas man's olfactory powers are limited to the strong odors; fish find a natural habitat under the water, whereas man can stay under water only for short intervals by the ~~XXXXX~~ aid of weighty instruments.

Subordinate clauses, used as adjectives, adverbs, and nouns, are called adjective clauses, adverbial clauses, and noun clauses.

Adjective clauses are introduced by the relative pronouns (who, whose, whom, which, and that) and by the relative adverbs (when, where, why, whither, while, whence). EXAMPLES:

The boy who wins will be given a prize.

A prize of five dollars will be given the girl whose exhibit is given first place.

Will you please ask everybody whom you meet to attend.

The place of which you were speaking is almost inaccessible.

Is this the table that you wanted?

This is the time when all good men should rally to the cause of justice.

This is the place where the wreck occurred.

The reason why he refused is uncertain.

The place whither he goes is unknown.

The days while you were away seemed very long.

Return to the place whence you came and render a good report.

The relative pronouns more commonly introduce adjective clauses than do the relative adverbs. The case of the pronouns is determined by their construction in the ~~XXXXXX~~ clauses in which they are used.

Adjective clauses that modify words already identified, by their own name (in the case of all proper nouns) or by any identifying modifier, are usually non-restrictive and are thus set off by commas. Non-restrictive clauses, in other words, merely give additional information and are not necessary for the identification of the substantive modified.

Adjective clauses that identify the words they modify (point out that particular person, place, or thing) are restrictive and are thus not set off by commas.

Non-restrictive:

We drove through the country to Dallas, where we spent a week at the Centennial Exposition.

James's mother, who had already won three prizes in canning contests, won the grand prize in canning at the county fair.

Restrictive:

The boy who wins will be given a trip to Chicago.

Please leave all the books that you wish to donate at the county library.

An adverbial clause may modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb:

He carried the letter to her when she called him. (adverbial clause of time, modifying the verb carried.)

I suspect that you could not come to the meeting. (adverbial clause of reason, modifying the adjective suspect.)

He was so angry that he trembled (adverbial clause of degree, modifying the verb was).

Adverbial clauses, usually introduced by subordinating conjunctions express:

Place: where, wherever, whither, whence.

Time: when, while, after, before, as, until, since.

Manner: as, as if, as though.

Cause-result: so... that.

Free-comparison: than, as... as, so... as (the last in negative comparisons).

Condition: if, unless, provided that.

Use or reason: because, inasmuch as, since, as.

Purpose: that, so that, in order that, lest.

Concession: though, although, even if, even though, notwithstanding that, no matter what, in spite of the fact that.

Result: So that.

Contrast: whereas.

The first five listed above are usually restrictive and they have no commas setting them off. Clauses of condition are restrictive except those introduced by provided that. Clauses of cause or reason and those of purpose are restrictive if the emphasis in the sentence is upon the statement made in the subordinate clause-- if the substance of the independent clause is already known or admitted; they are non-restrictive if the emphasis is upon the statement made in the independent clause-- if the subordinate clause is merely an added element for further explanation. Examples: Restrictive: He saved his money so that he could go to college. (The emphasis is not upon the statement that he saved his money, but upon the fact that he would use the money to go to college.) Non-restrictive: He saved thirty-five cents each day for thirty years, so that he could be able to take care of himself in his old age. (Obviously the emphasis is upon the fact that he saved thirty-five cents each day for thirty years; the subordinate clause-- so that he would be able to take care of himself in his old age-- is clearly an added statement as to the purpose for his saving the money.) Clauses of concession, result, and contrast are usually non-restrictive and thus require commas.

A noun clause, having the usual functions of a noun, has the following constructions:

As the subject of the verb: That he is wrong is evident.

As a subjective complement: His objective was that no one should surpass him.

As a delayed subject with the introductory pronoun it: It is conceded that he will win.

As the object of a verb: He thought that he was right.

He asked, "Where are you going?"

As the object of a preposition: He offered the money to whoever would carry him across the river.

As an appositive: His neighbor, that all the candidate's kinsmen were on the jury, could not be successfully met.

Noun clauses are introduced by that (expressed or understood), what, whatever, where, wherever, whoever, whichever, whatsoever, whichsoever, to.

Noun clauses are not set off by commas, except in the case of direct quotations, non-restrictive appositives, very long and complicated noun clauses used as the subject and separated from the verb by a comma, and noun clauses ending in the same word with which the remainder of the sentence begins (Whatever is, is right).

The case of a pronoun used in a noun clause is determined by its function in its own clause.

Do not use because, when, and where to introduce noun clauses used as subjective complements:

Wrong: My reason for calling is because I thought you might like to go to the circus.

Right: My reason for calling is that I thought you might like to go to the circus.

Wrong: The active voice is when the subject does the acting.

Right: The active voice is the form of the verb which indicates the subject as doing the acting.

Wrong: Irrigation is where ditches carry water to dry fields.

Right: Irrigation is the artificial watering of dry fields by means of water brought from reservoirs in ditches.

Wrong: I see where Italy has established control over Ethiopia.

Right: I see that Italy has established control over Ethiopia.

Well-constructed sentences should be exact, compact, pleasing, logical and consistent, and forcible.

Effective sentences should be exact and complete, so that the sentence elements will convey the thought intended:

1. Sentences should be so constructed as to eliminate any possibility of a misreading. Generally speaking, words, phrases, and clauses should come near the words they modify; if they do not, there should be no possibility of reading the sentence so as to make them modify the wrong element. The antecedent of a pronoun should be clear and specific.

Examples:

Wrong: Please send me the book which you borrowed as soon as possible.

Right: Please send me as soon as possible the book which you borrowed.

Wrong: I read the book which you recommended while I was in Jackson.

Right: While I was in Jackson, I read the book which you recommended.

Wrong: I knew my grade thirty minutes after I took the examination and was on my way home.

Right: Thirty minutes after I took the examination, I knew my grades and was on my way home.

Wrong: I nearly caught fifty fish at Eagle Lake.

Right: I caught nearly fifty fish at Eagle Lake.

Wrong: When three years old, my parents moved to Louisville.

Right: When I was three years old, my parents moved to Louisville.

2. Do not, by any means, punctuate a fragment as a complete sentence - a dangling participle, a nominative absolute construction, a subordinate clause, etc.

Examples:

Wrong: John, studying all the time he was in college and never taking time to engage in social activities.

Right: John, studying all the time he was in college and never taking time to engage in social activities, graduated with little chance of succeeding in his chosen profession.

Wrong: The man who called to us last night and who told us the way to Mr. Smith's store, where we bought an inner tube.

Right: The man who called to us last night told us the way to Mr. Smith's store, where we bought an inner tube.

Wrong: When the teacher fails to teach a student some important rule, he will suffer for it.

Right: When the teacher fails to teach a student some important rule, the student will suffer for this neglect.

In order to construct compact sentences, one must avoid redundancy in all its forms. Following are the various types of redundancy as given by Webster's New International Dictionary, Second Edition:

"Redundancy, as here compared, is the generic term for the use of more words than are needed to express one's meaning... Tautology is needless or useless repetition of the same idea in different words; pleonasm (which may sometimes be a means of proper emphasis) denotes the use of words whose omission would leave one's meaning intact; as, "'boldly dare' is tautology" (Gray)... Verbosity is excessive wordiness; it differs from pleonas in that it is too pervasive to be remedied by excision; verbiage applies to that which is verbosely expressed, or which consists of nothing but words... Prolifity implies excessive and wearisome attention to trivial particulars; diffuseness is the opposite of conciseness... Circumlocution and periphrasis (the more bookish term) denote a roundabout or indirect way of saying a thing..."

EXAMPLES:

Redundancy: Keep off of the grass. (Keep off the grass.)

I haven't got a pencil. (I haven't a pencil.)

She bought a very unique vase. (She bought a unique vase.)

You hadn't ought to do that. (You ought not to do that.)

Tautology: They were two mutual friends. (They were mutual friends.)

He lives in close proximity to a gambling house. (He lives in proximity to a gambling house.)

The sound was clearly audible to the ear. (The sound was clearly audible.)

He read the entire book through. (He read the book through.)

While we were in Vicksburg we saw an equestrian statue of Lee on horseback. (While we were in Vicksburg, we saw an equestrian statue of Lee.)

I had to write an autobiography of my life. (I had to write an autobiography.)

Repeat that again. (Repeat that.)

Divide up the toys. (Divide the toys.)

Join the lines together. (Join the lines.)

Pleonasm(a special form of tautology):

I saw it with my own eyes. (I saw it.)

Tom, he is a good boy. (Tom is a good boy.)

The eye, too, it looks out. (The eye, too, looks out.)

Verbosity: There were twenty of us who went on the picnic. (Twenty of us went on the picnic.)

It is often the case that a girl will not obey her mother.

(A girl often refuses to obey her mother.)

Dr. Smith preached a sermon this morning along the line of stewardship. (Dr. Smith preached this morning on stewardship.)

Verbiage: Sometimes matters of extraordinary importance come into our mundane lives and we find it necessary to put our shoulder to the wheel and try to make the best of the proposition which confronts us. (Nothing definite is said; therefore the passage can hardly be remedied.)

Prolifity:

"Can you tell me the way to Mr. Smith's store?"

"Sure. I have been going there off and on for thirty years. He married my wife's second cousin--no, it was her third cousin. Old man Davis, his wife's father, gave Sam--that's Mr. Smith--and Matilda--that's his wife--forty acres of land down t'other side of the Ridge."

"Then Mr. Smith's store is beyond the Ridge Road?"

"No; Sam sold that forty and bough eighty acres from Ted Jones--no, it was from Jess Jones--Ted used to own it--and settled there--over next to Dave Caldwell about two miles north of here. He built his store just the other side of his house. You just go straight down this road until you come to a bridge which John Strickland and the county convicts have just finished building. When you get across that bridge, take the left-hand road and go straight on to Mr. Smith's house, the third one on the right. Well, the store is right on the road below his house." (Better: "Go straight ahead. Take the left after you have passed a new bridge about a mile down the road. Then in about another mile you will come to the store on the right of the road.")

Circumlocution: I ate four delicious morsels of ground beef placed within the halves of a puffy roll baked by a master hand. (I ate four delicious hamburgers.)

Not being entirely cognizant of the facts of the case, I am afraid to make a conjecture as to the situation for fear of unintentionally uttering a prevarication. (Not knowing, I am afraid to say.)

Well-constructed sentences should be pleasing, both in sound and in construction. They should be graceful in the continuity of their thought elements, as well as in the form of their mechanical structure.

To produce pleasing, euphonious sentences, observe the following rules:

1. Avoid rhyme in prose; for instance; The thoughts of man, though exalted and grand, can never equal those of God.
2. Avoid alliteration in prose: The feebleness and foolishness of forecasters is felt when their false predictions falter and fail.
3. Avoid the unnecessary and purposeless repetition of words within the same sentence.
4. Sentences, to be pleasing, must have the sentence elements so well joined with transitional words and phrases that the relationship between the parts of the sentence is at once evident.
5. Use variety in sentence beginning. Instead of having all the sentences introduced by the subject, followed by the verb, object, etc., frequently introduce by means of adverbial phrases and clauses, verbals, adverbs, adjectives, and other sentence elements.
6. Choppy sentences and stringy sentences (in which a series of independent clauses are connected by the simple conjunctions) may be improved by subordinating the ideas of lesser importance.

EXAMPLES:

Mary made her new dress yesterday. She made it at Jane's house. It was given to her by her mother. Jane's mother made it. Mary can't sew. (Yesterday, Mary, who has not learned to sew yet, carried some material her mother had given her to Jane's mother, who made a new dress for Mary.)

James had never developed good study habits and he became confused when he came to college and studied hard but failed all his work the first quarter anyhow. (James, who had never developed good study habits, became confused when he came to college and, although he studied hard, failed all his studies the first quarter.)

7. An effective means of securing a pleasing effect in reading matter is to employ parallel structure for the various sentence elements--words, phrases, and clauses. Parallelism consists in the similarity of ~~EXPLANATION~~ construction of adjacent word groups equivalent, complementary, or antithetic in sense, especially for rhetorical effect or rhythm.

EXAMPLES:

"What we anticipate seldom occurs; what we least expected generally happens"--Disraeli.

"If, for instance, it were admitted that a religion is a metaphysical poem, accompanied by a belief; and remarking at the same time that there are certain epochs, races, and circumstances in which belief, the poetical and metaphysical faculty, are combined with an unwanted vigor; if we consider that Christianity and Buddhism were produced at periods of grand productions, and if we recognize, on the other hand, that primitive religions are born at the awakening of human reason, during the richest blossoming of human imagination, at a time of the fairest artlessness and the greatest credulity; if we consider, also, that Mohammedanism appeared with the dawning of poetic prose, and the conception of national unity, among a people destitute of science, at a period of sudden development of the intellect--we might then conclude that a religion is born, declines, is reformed and transformed according as circumstances confirmed and combined with more or less exactitude and force its three generative instincts; and we should understand why it is endemic in India, amid imaginative, philosophic, eminently fanatic brains; why it blossoms forth so strangely and grandly in the middle ages, amid an oppressive organization, new tongues and literatures; why it was aroused in the sixteenth century with a new character and heroic enthusiasm, amid universal regeneration, and during the awakening of the German races; why it breaks out into eccentric sects amid the rude American democracy, and under the bureaucratic Russian despotism; why, in fine, it is spread, at the present day, over Europe in such different dimensions and such various characteristics, according to the differences of race and civilization."--Taine.

Effective sentences must be logical and consistent with their own method of development. There must be no sudden jerks in the connection between the sentence elements, no hazy and uncertain passages, nor any unnecessary switch or inconsistency in the development of a figure of speech. Let us here review the figures of speech. A figure of speech is a form of expression other than plain and normal, usually one in sentence structure or diction, adopted for stylistic effect. The chief figures of speech are:

Allegory: The term is derived originally from two Greek words meaning other plus to speak. It is the veiled presentation, especially in a figurative story or narrative, of a meaning metaphorically implied, but not expressly stated. It is a prolonged metaphor, in which typically a series of actions are symbolic of other actions, while the characters are often types or personifications. Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress and Spenser's Faerie Queene are celebrated examples of the allegory.

Anticlimax: A sentence or passage in which the ideas fall off in dignity, or become less important and striking, at the close.

And thou Dalhousie, the great god of war,
Lieutenant colonel to the Earl of Mar.--Pope

The fire swept away all he had--his house, his barn, his straw hat, and his quill toothpick.

Antithesis: An opposition or contrast of ideas, especially one emphasized by the positions of the contrasting words, as when placed at the beginning and end of a single sentence or clause, or in corresponding positions in two or more sentences or clauses.

He works his work, I mine.--Tennyson, "Ulysses."

Beauty is truth, truth beauty.--Keats, "Ode on a Grecian Urn."

Apostrophe: A feigned turning from one's audience to address directly a person or thing, now usually a dead or absent person, or an abstract idea or imaginary object.

Milton, thou shouldst be living at this hour...--Wordsworth.

O world, I cannot hold thee close enough!--Edna St. Vincent Millay, "God's World."

Climax: A figure in which a number of ideas or propositions are so arranged that each succeeding one rises above its predecessor in impressiveness or force.

"...tribulation worketh patience; and patience, experience; and experience, hope..."--Romans 5:3.

He gave of his thought, his wealth, and his life's blood
on the battlefield for the cause of liberty.

Euphemism: Substitution of an agreeable or nonoffensive word or expression for one that is harsh, indelicate, or otherwise unpleasant; a mild name for something disagreeable, as, "passing away" for "dying."

He and truth are not on very intimate terms.

If only the good die young, he should live to a ripe old age.

Hyperbole: Extravagant exaggeration by which something is represented as much greater or less, better or worse, or as involving a greater intensity, than in reality, or beyond possibility; a statement exaggerated fancifully or for effect.

A thousand pardons!

I was scared to death.

I am burning up.

I have looked all over creation for my book.

He ran with the speed of an arrow.

Interrogation: A rhetorical question; a questioning with the force of an emphatic affirmation or denial.

Shall we allow the monster of greed to devour our very homes?

Irony: A form of expression in which the intended meaning is the opposite of the literal interpretation, as when expressions of praise are used when blame is meant, as in Mark Antony's speech in Julius Caesar. Swift's works abound in irony.

Such kindness overwhelms me!

What a world! What a life!

Litotes: An understatement to avoid censure or to increase the effect.

Paul was a citizen of no mean city.

He is not a bad actor at all.

It is not impossible that he will sell you all the lots.

Metaphor: Use of a word or phrase literally denoting one kind of object or idea in place of another by way of suggesting a likeness or analogy between them.

The ship plows the sea.

He let out a volley of oaths.

Life is a flame and we live by an invisible sun within us--Browning.

All the world's a stage--Shakespeare.

Metonymy: Use of one word for another that it suggests, as the effect for the cause, the cause for the effect, the sign for the thing signified, the container for the thing contained, etc.

Mrs. Smith sets a good table.

We have finished reading Browning.

The man has a warm heart.

The kettle boils.

He chose a gun instead of a cap and gown.

He failed to gain recognition from the chair.

The man likes his pipe.

Onomatopoeia: The use of words whose sound suggests the sense--such words as rumble, crash, splash, boom, whiz, hum, buzz, cackle, chirp, puff, gurgle, hiss, kiss, smack, tinkle, and chatter.

A notable example of the extensive use of onomatopoeia is Poe's "The Bells."

Personification: Representation of an inanimate object or abstract idea as a personality or as endowed with personal attributes.

The floods clapped their hands.

"Night's candles are burnt out, and jocund day
Stands Tiptoe on the misty mountain tops."--Shakespeare, Romeo and Juliet.

"Confusion heard his voice." --Milton.

Simile: A figure of speech by which one thing, action, or relation is likened or explicitly compared in one or more aspects, often with as or like, to something of different kind or quality; an imaginative comparison.

"Life, like a dome of many-coloured glass,
Stains the white radiance of eternity
Until Death tramples it to fragments..." --Shelley.

"Be sober, be vigilant; because your adversary the devil, as a roaring lion, walketh about, seeking whom he may devour."--I.Peter.

Synecdoche: A figure of speech by which a part is put for the whole (fifty soil for fifty ships), the whole for a part (the smiling year for spring), the species for the genus (cutthroat for assassin), the genus for the species (a creature for a man), the name of the material for the thing made, etc. ("Whenas in silks my Julia goes . . ." --Herrick.) Synecdoche is sometimes classed as a variation of metonymy.

Some of these figures of speech are merely structural devices for securing stylistic effects; others are used to compare the unknown ~~XXX~~ or unfamiliar to the known or the familiar. None should be overworked. They are like salt in one's bread--desirable, if used sparingly. Moreover, the various figures should not be mixed or confused; neither should figurative language be employed in parallel structure with literal language. Note the incongruity of the following:

The men are cutting lots down among the whispering pines.

Mr. Jones wrecked his political machine in a deluge of false moves, and, despite all his efforts, he could not pull himself out of the pit of despair.

He was willing to catch at a straw by playing ring-around-a-rosy with his managers; however, he soon discovered that he had bitten off more than he could swallow.

He was a pillar of strength in the tossing billows, and he worked hard every day.

.

Write two original sentences employing each of the figures of speech given on the two preceding pages.

.....
Lastly, sentences, to be effective, must have force; they must be emphatic. Many speakers with good messages, clothed in good terminology, fail in their efforts to convince because they lack stage personality and delivery. Likewise, many sentences containing good ideas are so constructed that they fail to grip the reader. Following are considerations to keep in mind in an effort to put the maximum of interest and forcefulness into a sentence:

1. The most important ideas should be placed near the beginning or near the end (especially in the case of a periodic sentence, or one in which the main statement is not made until the very last, in contrast to a loose sentence, in which the main statement is made first, with all the modifying elements following). Parenthetical and other non-emphatic elements should be placed, if possible, within the sentence—not at the beginning or end. Any sentence element can be emphasized by moving it from its natural position, especially to the first of the sentence.

2. Emphasis can be effected in occasional cases by the repetition of key words or phrases, or by the repetition of the idea involved in other words.

3. The employment of italics for emphasis is permissible, if not overworked.)

4. The most important single aid to securing emphasis is the employment of forceful words instead of weak words.

5. All the devices mentioned in considering the writing of exact, compact, pleasing, and logical and consistent sentences, if properly employed, will also add to the emphasis of sentences.

.....
Write a paragraph on a subject of your own choosing, being careful to use the best sentence structure of which you are capable

UNIT SEVEN--DIAGRAMMING

Time--Two weeks--November 16-24.

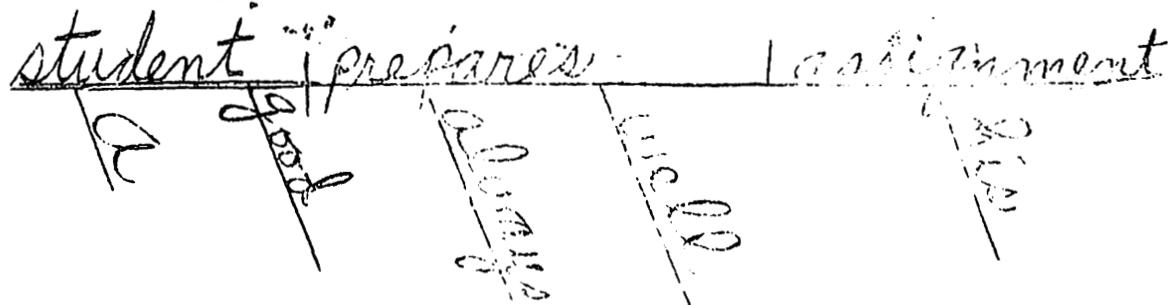
Diagramming is nothing more nor less than the mechanical representation of sentence analysis. By means of diagramming, the relationships of various sentence elements—modifiers, complements, phrases, clauses, etc.—to one another and to the sentence as a whole are made more readily evident. Diagramming really serves the same purpose for sentence analysis that graphing serves for the analysis of groups of figures, such as weather charts, temperature graphs employed by nurses in hospitals, etc. In the hospital, for instance, the doctor, at one glance, can determine at what hour the patient's temperature was the highest and at what hour it was the lowest, etc., whereas if the nurse had the same facts written out, he might have to study the paper for ten minutes. If one understands the relation between the various sentence elements, he can readily and easily employ the few simple lines used to indicate these relations.

The various constructions of nouns, pronouns, phrases, clauses, verbals, etc., as given in the unit on grammar, should be reviewed.

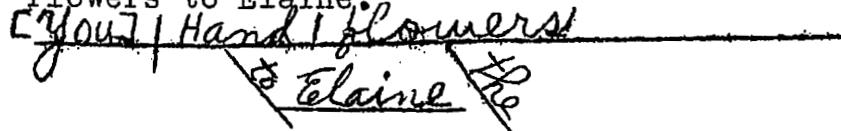
Although any system of diagramming is just as good as any other system, the same marks should be used consistently and uniformly, so as to avoid confusion. Therefore, if you have learned to diagram by another group of lines and marks, do not be disturbed. The way you learned is all right; you should use the system herein employed, however, for the sake of uniformity.

Let us now take a simple sentence: A good student always prepares his assignments well.

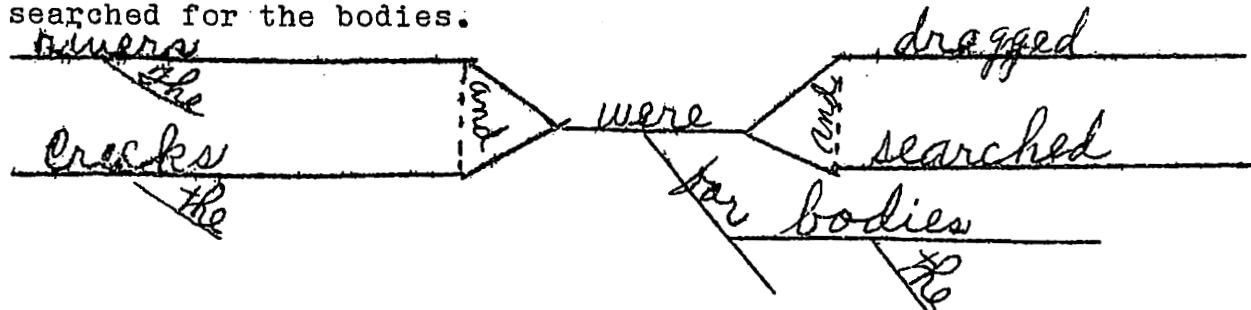
The word student is the subject; prepares is the verb. A and good are adjectives modifying the noun student. Assignment is the object of the verb prepares. His, a possessive pronoun, or pronominal adjective, modifies assignment. Always and well are adverbs modifying prepares. The mechanical representation of this analysis is as follows:



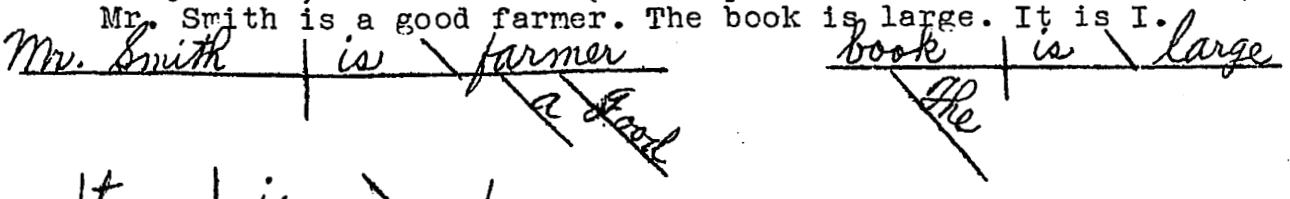
When the sentence is elliptical with the subject you understood, use brackets to enclose the understood word: Hand the flowers to Elaine.



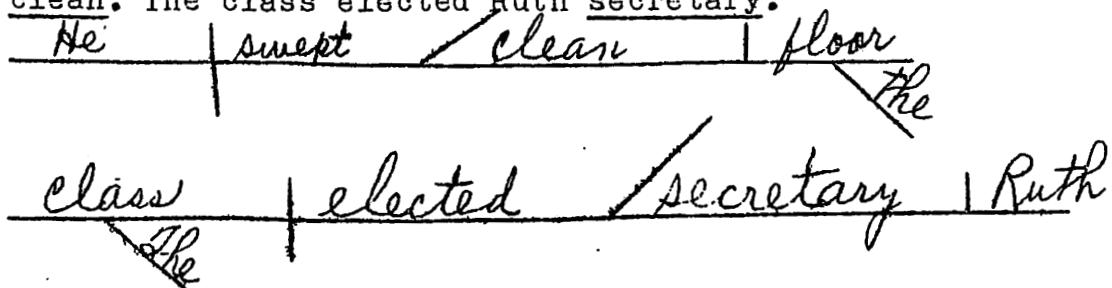
Compound subjects, predicates, and objects are diagrammed by dividing the line: The rivers and the creeks were dragged and searched for the bodies.



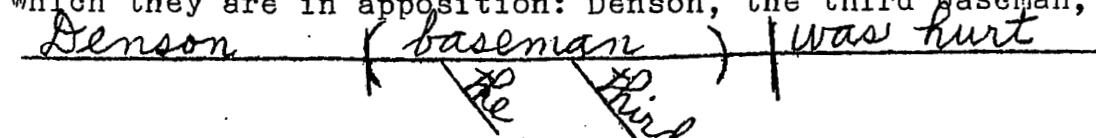
A ~~XXXXXXXXXX~~ subjective complement, whether a substantive or an adjective, has a slanting line pointing back to the subject:



Prepositional phrases are diagrammed under the words they modify, as in the phrases for the bodies and to Elaine above. Objective complements are diagrammed with the lines slanting to the right--to indicate that the adjective or substantive following relates to the object and not to the subject: He swept the floor clean. The class elected Ruth secretary.



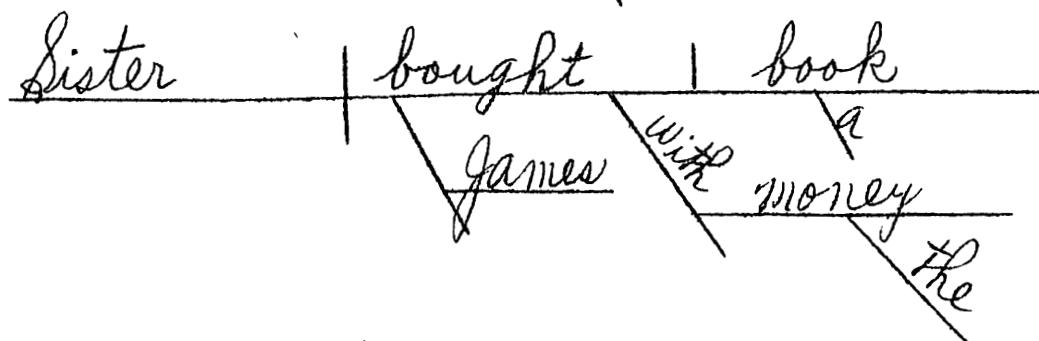
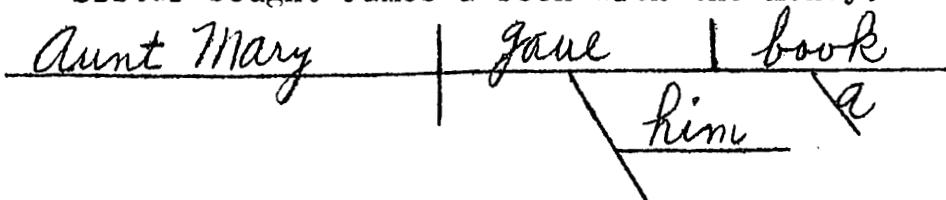
Appositives are placed in parenthesis after the words with which they are in apposition: Denson, the third baseman, was hurt.



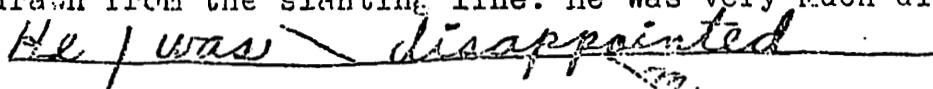
The indirect object is placed on the same kind of line on which the object of a preposition is placed. (An indirect object really states to whom, to what, for whom, or for what an action is performed.) Nothing is placed on the line where the preposition normally comes.

Aunt Mary gave him a book.

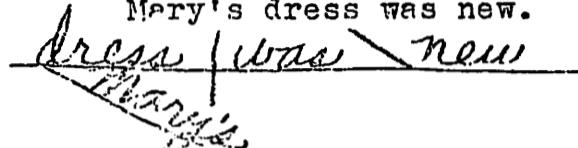
Sister bought James a book with the money.



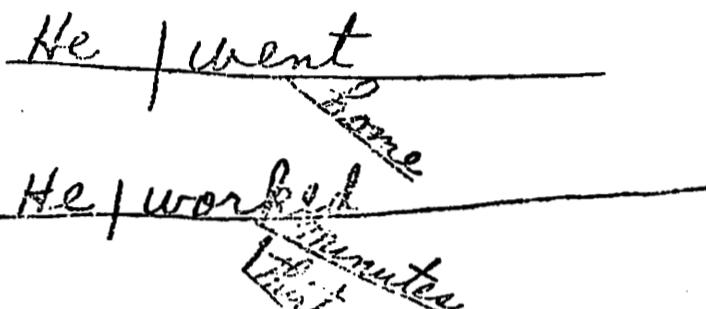
An adverb modifying an adjective or an adverb is placed on a line connecting at a ninety-degree angle, from a perpendicular line drawn from the slanting line: He was very much disappointed.



Possessive modifiers are diagrammed as adjective modifiers: Mary's dress was new.



An adverbial noun is placed on a slanting line under the word it modifies: He went home. He worked thirty minutes.



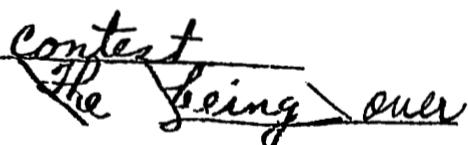
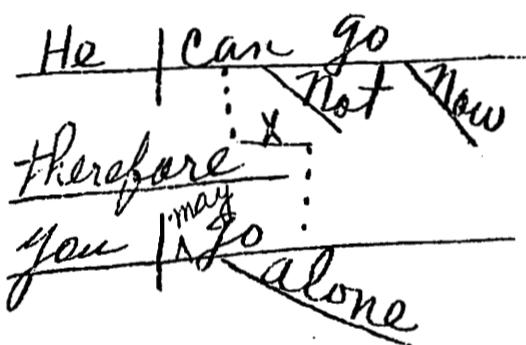
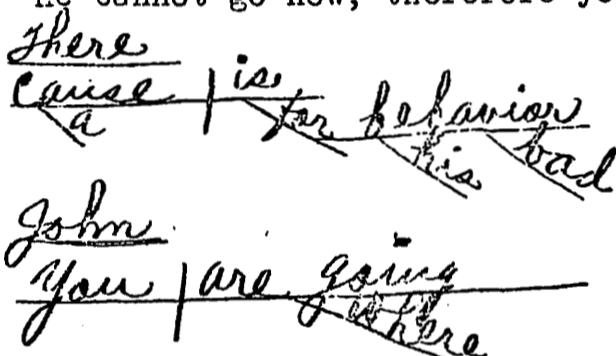
The following sentence elements are placed on a solid line just above the base line--they have no direct connection with any other part of the sentence: (there) (as an expletive), nouns of address, nominative absolutes, and adverbial conjunctions (however, therefore, nevertheless, moreover, consequently, etc.)

There is a cause for his bad behavior.

Where are you going, John?

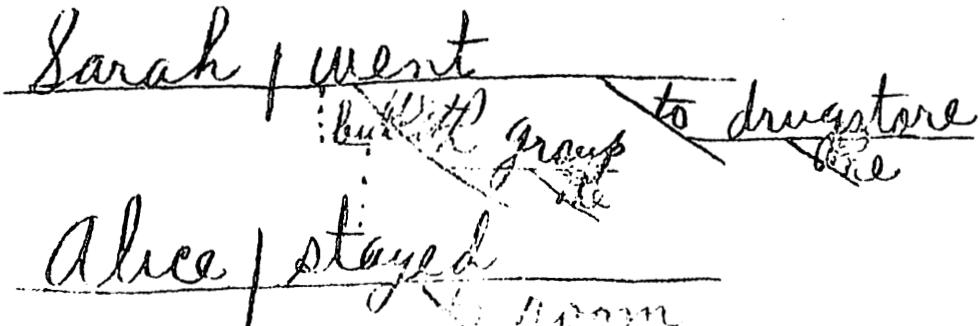
The contest being over, the candidates became close friends.

He cannot go now; therefore you may go alone.



A compound sentence has the two clauses diagrammed as separate sentences with a dotted line connecting them; the dotted line has a solid step midway, however, and the conjunction is placed on this solid step. The dotted line always comes from verb to verb, as in the sentence above. When the coordinating conjunction is omitted, an X is placed on the step, as above.

Sarah went with the group to the drugstore, but Alice stayed in her room.



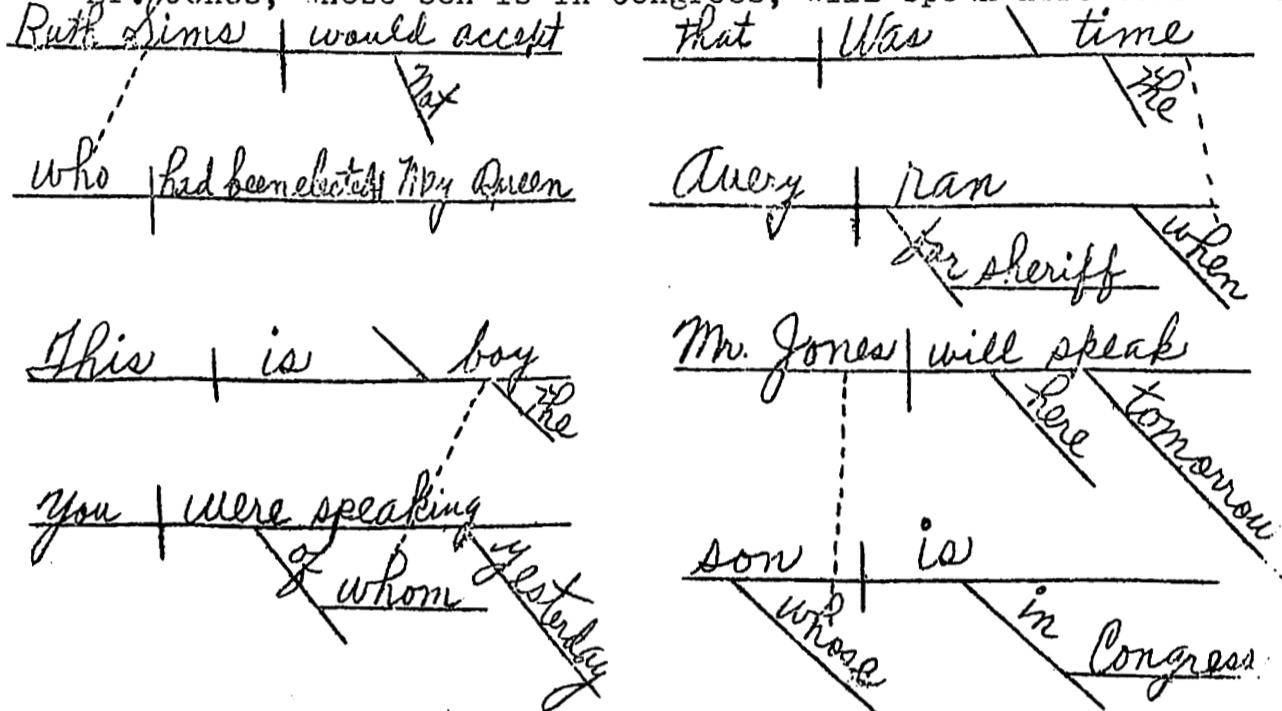
An adjective clause is placed under the main clause on a separate base line. A dotted line connects the two clauses by extending from the word in the main clause that the entire adjective clause modifies to the introductory word of the subordinate clause (the relative pronouns who, whose, whom, which, and that or the relative adverbs when, where, while, whence, whither, and why).

Ruth Sims, who had been elected May Queen, would not accept.

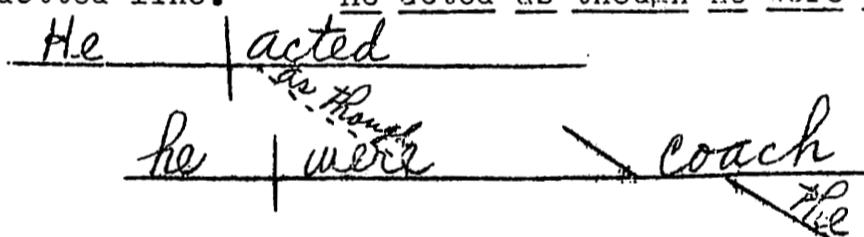
Was that the time when Avery ran for sheriff?

This is the boy of whom you were speaking yesterday.

Mr. Jones, whose son is in Congress, will speak here tomorrow.



All adverbial clauses (except those of degree-result and those of degree-comparison), diagrammed under the main clause, are connected by a dotted line running from the verb of the main clause (which the subordinate clause modifies) to the verb of the subordinate clause. The subordinating conjunction is placed on this dotted line. He acted as though he were the coach.

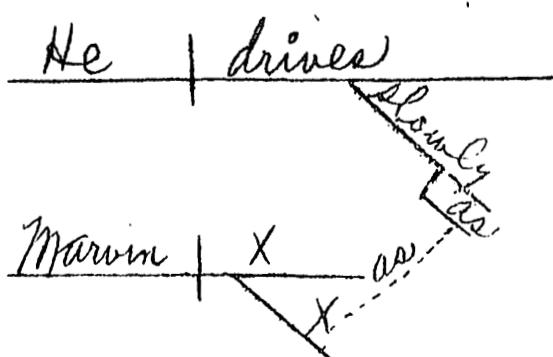
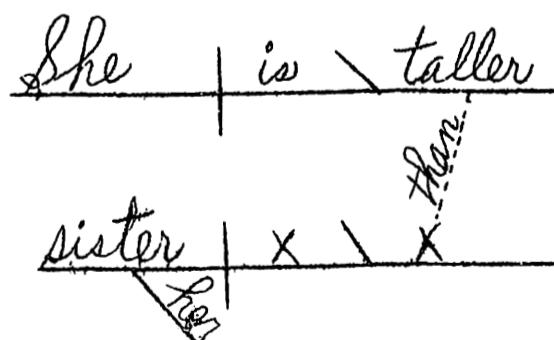
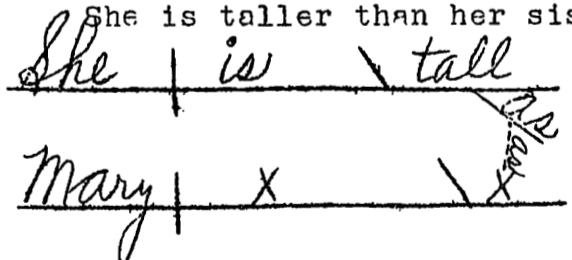


Clauses of degree-comparison have the broken line running from adjective to adjective, from adjective to adverb, or from adverb to adverb.

She is as tall as Mary.

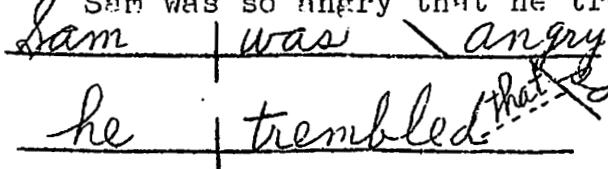
He drives as slowly as Marvin.

She is taller than her sister.



Clause of degree-result have the broken line running from the adverb of degree to the verb of the subordinate clause.

Sam was so angry that he trembled.



Noun clauses are diagrammed on stilts wherever their constructions place them. This method indicates that the entire clause is to be thought of as a single part of speech. The word that (a subordinating conjunction) is placed on a solid line just above the noun clause.

He said that he would go.

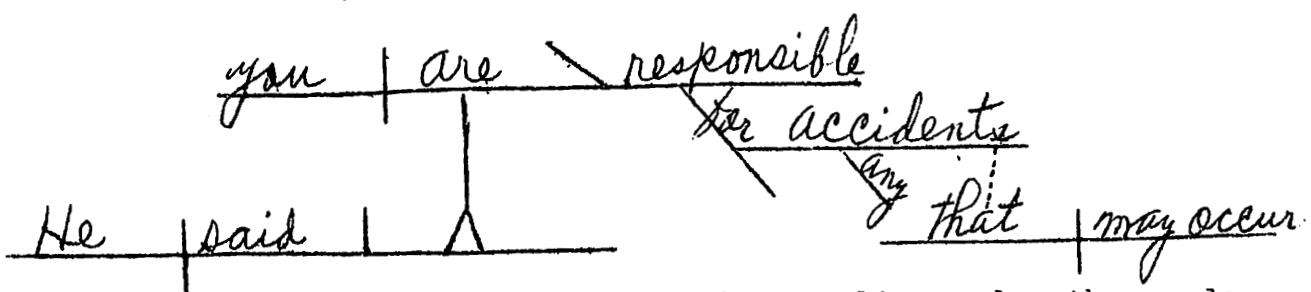
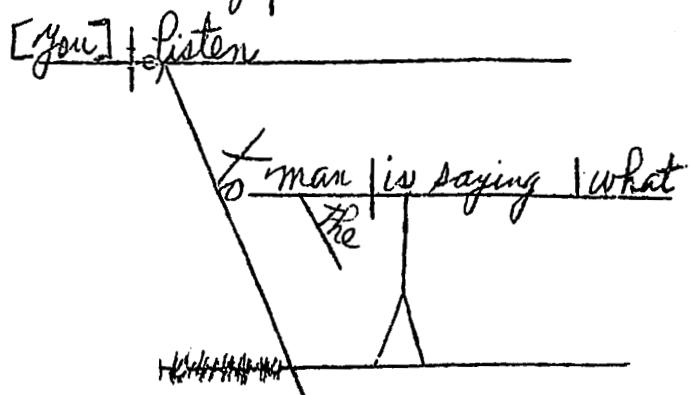
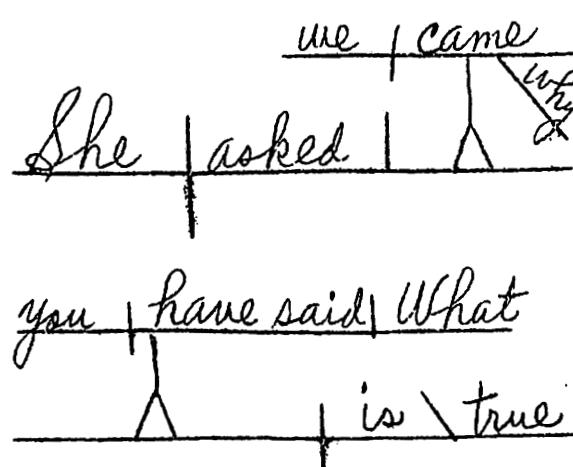
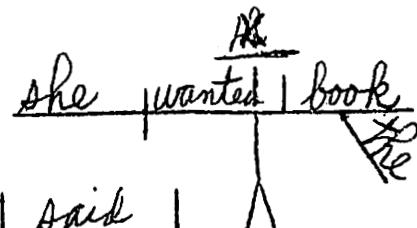
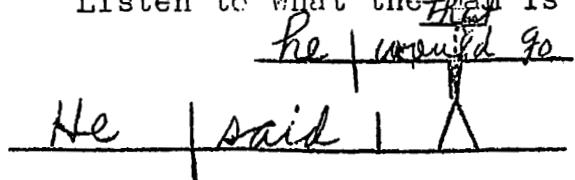
She asked why we came.

What you have said is true.

He said, "You are responsible for any accidents that may occur."

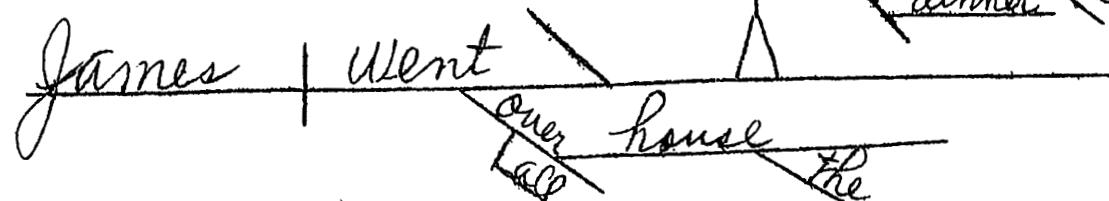
Mary said she wanted the book.

Listen to what the man is saying.

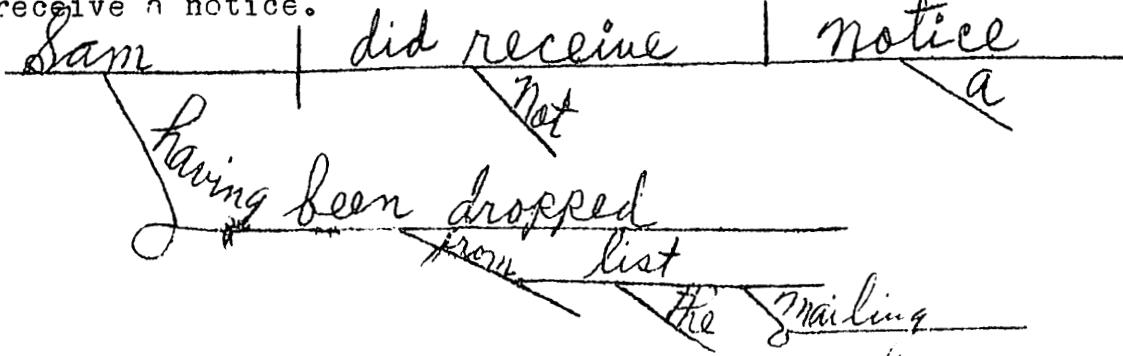


Participles are diagrammed on a lopped line under the words they modify. Occasionally a participle used as a subjective complement is placed on a stilt.

James went all over the house calling the guests to dinner.



Sam, having been dropped from the mailing list, did not receive a notice.



Gerunds are placed on stilts wherever their constructions warrant.

Adjective modifiers are placed before the vertical line and adverbial modifiers after.

Mixing concrete all day is not an easy job.

I regret John's having been expelled from college.

In the rowing of boats the boys found both pleasure and exercise

Mixing | Concrete

| ~~all~~ | is | job
| ~~not~~ | ~~an~~ | ~~easy~~

Having | been | expelled
~~John's~~ | ~~from~~ | ~~college~~

I | regret |

boys | found | pleasure
~~the~~ | ~~rowing~~ | exercise

Infinitives are usually placed on stilts--in all cases in which they are used as nouns. Whenever they modify a noun, a verb, or an adjective, they are placed on lines similar to those used for prepositional phrases. The sign of the infinitive, to, always has a hood over it to distinguish it from the preposition to.

His inclination to steal caused much trouble.

(To steal modifies the noun inclination.)

James | stopped | car

| ^(to) | pick | up | package
| ^(the) | ~~the~~ | ~~the~~ | ~~the~~

James stopped the car to pick up the package.

(To pick up tells why he stopped the car.)

inclination | caused | trouble

| ^(his) | ^(to) | steal | ^(much)

To have changed our course at that time would have proved unwise (subject of the sentence).

to | have | changed | course

| ^(at) | ^(time) | ^(our)
| ^(that) |

| would | have | proved | unwise

She wished to be sitting on the porch when the procession came by (object of the verb).

She | wished |

| ^(to) | be | sitting

| ^(on) | porch

procession | came

It was easy to solve the problems (delayed subject).

It | ^(to) | solve | problems | easy

Will your mother let you go? (The to is understood.)

mother | Will let | you

They asked him to retain his position. (The entire clause him to retain his position is the object of asked.)

They | asked | him

Sentences Involving Various Constructions

The many people who heard the candidate speak declared that he had advocated a principle which will eventually be enacted into law, although many years might be required in bringing about the desired changes.

People | declared | speak
many |
candidate |

who | heard |

years | might be required |
many | in |
bringing about | changes |
the | end |

Standing on the crest of the mountain, he watched the traffic winding its way up the sides of the steep slopes much as an old man serenely watches the younger generation as they follow in the path of their forefathers.

he | watched | traffic

standing | as |
on crest | much |
the | of | mountain |

they | follow |
in pair |
the | of | forefathers |

man | watches | generation |
an old | as | the younger |

serene | of | forefathers |

Diagram the following sentences:

1. Many windows in the plant had been broken by the stones and bricks thrown by strikers.
2. Flood lights illuminating the factory building were extinguished by rifle fire, and in the darkness the strikers charged again and again.
3. Joe Daws, representative from Kemper County, said that the legislature should not adjourn until the state land commissioner's office is investigated.
4. Denying that Bruno Richard Hauptmann was convicted by "circus methods", Wilentz asked the supreme court to uphold his death sentence.
5. Police fired with buckshot Thursday into a mob which was trying to enforce a general strike.
6. Returning home at midnight, she found her father, Trigg Maxwell, who thought daughters should be at home at nine o'clock, waiting up with a club and a butcher knife.
7. Many people want to know why Mississippi does not get a large tourist trade.
8. This is the man of whom you have been asking.
9. The association elected John Jones, superintendent of the city school, president.
10. Why the girl whom you invited did not come was a mystery until George told us about her having lost the purse.
11. Although he had sought the favor, he did not seem pleased with having secured it.
12. The boy whose conduct indicates good breeding will, when a job is to be given, receive consideration over one whose conduct indicates poor breeding.
13. Changing her mind at the last minute, Sarah decided that she did not want to go to the circus.
14. Nobody saw Mr. Jones, who had already crossed the street, when the hit-and-run driver ran over him.
15. Stay here until I return, and don't meddle with this machine.
16. This is Miss Smith, the new music teacher at Newton, who was in school several years ago at Belhaven with your sister Jane.
17. Nobody contended with him when he first started because the class had just elected him president.
18. He disliked having been called a liar; moreover, he threw off his shirt and started to fight.
19. Sam, having switched the packages, remained behind to watch the results.
20. The teacher having left the room, the class began preparing the package that they had planned.

UNIT EIGHT--CAPITALIZATION

28
Time--One week--November 29-December 4.
Assignment--Page 1271 in Webster's Collegiate Dictionary.

All the rules in the assignment should be thoroughly mastered. The error of promiscuously using capital letters where they are not needed is just as bad as the error of failing to use capitals where they are needed. Never use a capital letter unless you can give a good rule for so doing.

UNIT NINE--PUNCTUATION

5-21
Time--Three weeks--December 6-23.
Assignment--Pages 1267-1269 in Webster's Collegiate Dictionary.

Learn thoroughly all the rules in the assignment. Every educated person, whatever his vocation, is expected to know and to apply the most important rules of punctuation. The reading of material in longhand, typed, or printed--is difficult unless the proper punctuation is employed. In fact, the exact meaning is lost, in many instances, if proper punctuation is not used.

UNIT TEN--MECHANICS

7-17
Time--One week--January 3-8.
Assignment--Page 1270, the lower part of page 1271, and pages 1272-1273 in Webster's Collegiate Dictionary.

Study very carefully the assignment.

Following are a model business letter and a model friendly letter:

Business Letter

116 West Capitol Street
Jackson, Mississippi
January 3, 1938

Mr. Newton E. Sims
Bassville, Mississippi

Dear Mr. Sims:

I have been informed by Mr. Oscar Brown that you need another barber in your shop at McComb.

I should like very much to work there in order that I could stay with my sister, Mrs. Clayton Brandon, whose husband, as you possibly know, died a few weeks ago.

I have been barbering here in the Capitol Barber Shop for the past eight years. Mr. Brown will be by your shop in Bassville Thursday and will be glad to answer any questions concerning me, as he has patronized me here for four years and has also had occasion to know of my private life.

I should be glad to hear from you after you have talked to Mr. Brown Thursday.

Respectfully yours,

James S. Collier

Friendly Letter

Decatur, Mississippi
January 3, 1938

Dear Harvey,

As you know, I have never been so long in answering a letter from you as I have been this time. The truth of the matter is that I am fast becoming lazy--or lazier. These teachers at East Central have constantly refused to make assignments sufficiently long to keep me busy, and I have developed a most indolent habit of going to bed at eight o'clock at night. Of course, we all yelp about the long assignments--and I am the chief sinner in this respect--and make the teachers think that they are about to kill us with work--and they are deluded enough to believe us. Such is college life!

Well, my ole pal, you'll fall over when you hear this one: I have me a girl at last. Here is the strange way that I happened to get started--a sophomore here bet me a quarter that I could not get a date with his roommate's new "flame." I took the bet and won--by a landslide. I am completely astonished at the surprising amount of IT I do have!

The basketball season is getting well under way now.) I believe that we will have a championship boys' team. The girls' team is quite good, but then, as you know, we can never predict just what the "women folks" will do.

Write me as soon as you return from Florida.

Ever yours truly,

[Signature]

Write a business letter and a friendly letter. Observe carefully the forms to be followed.

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January 9-14--Review and Examination.

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SECOND SEMESTER

UNIT ELEVEN--THE RESEARCH ARTICLE

Time--Two weeks--January 16-20.

This unit would ordinarily come later--at least after the unit on the paragraph. It is placed here so that the student may be assembling material while he is learning in class about the construction of the paragraph. By the time the unit on the paragraph has been completed, he will have gathered his material and be ready to make immediate application of his knowledge on paragraph construction.

A term paper is a new garment made from old materials gathered here and there. It is comparable to a quilt top--made of fragments collected from various sources but brought together in a new pattern.

We find another analogy in the trick which the sophomores play on the freshmen. The freshmen are required to pull off their shoes and put them together in one pile. Then the barefoot boys are placed in a line at a distance from the pile of shoes and told that the last one to get his shoes will have to go down the belt line. There is, of course, a wild scramble for the shoes. From the pile come many new pairs of shoes--not new shoes, but new pairs--combinations that never existed before.

Likewise, the term paper consists of knowledge which has, in fragments, and in other combinations, been known and written before, but which has never been combined in its specific form before.

Thus a research article is both old and new--old in its parts and new in its combination.

A subject should be used, therefore, that has never been written on before. Let us take a particular subject: "Napoleon's Attitude Toward Women." Much, it is true, has been written on Napoleon, much on women, and much on attitudes of men in general toward women. Many writers have, too, written a few lines (in books on Napoleon) on the conqueror's attitude toward women. But these scattered remarks have been only incidental. No writer has attempted to treat the subject exhaustively nor exclusively. Each has touched upon Napoleon's attitude toward women only as a further and partial treatment of some larger subject. The problem of the student in writing on such a subject is to ignore Napoleon's military tactics, his relations to his soldiers, his ancestry, his religion, his philosophy, etc. (except as these phases of his life may have an indirect bearing upon his attitude toward women) and center his attention solely and completely upon the specific subject. He should bring in no other matter whatsoever, except as it might relate indirectly to the subject.

A suitable subject for a term paper will not be too broad to be capable of being exhausted. If the student should attempt to write on "The Military Strategy of the Outstanding Generals of the World," he would find himself with too much material on hand. He could never find room in a short article to handle all the important phases of the subject. One needs a subject that he can exhaust--can use effectively all available material--can wring the subject dry.

On the other hand, one should not choose a subject that is too technical, too narrow, too specific. For instance, if one were to attempt to write on "The Extent of Napoleon's Knowledge of the Military Strategy of George Washington," he would likely search through book after book on Napoleon, with no pertinent material to be found. There would be little to wring out at all.

A student should, of course, select a subject that is of interest to him--one that he can work on wholeheartedly and pleasurabley. On the contrary other things being equal, he should select a subject about which he already knows very little, so as to broaden his mental horizon and increase his knowledge.

With the subject tentatively agreed upon, the student should make a survey of the library for material on the subject.

On 6x4 cards he should take down all the possible sources of material to be found--through the card catalogue, the varicus reader's guides, the yearbooks, the encyclopedias, etc. In this way he can determine whether or not he will be able to find sufficient material on his subject. After this preliminary survey, he will, by means of the cards he has already made, go back over the same route, taking notes from all the sources.

One should gather all his material--make all his notes--before he starts writing at all. The reason is evident: He really does not know just what arrangement should be made of his material until he has it all together. Some of the material he gathers the last day of his note-taking might be the very part he would want on his first page.

An analogy will serve to illustrate the need for taking all notes before starting actual writing. Let us suppose that a lumberman sells Mr. Smith all the scrap lumber at a half dozen old lumber yards and that Mr. Smith is depending on the lumber to build a house. Mr. Smith would be foolish to start building his house after he has hauled only one load of lumber; he will need to wait until all his lumber is collected, so that he can see the kinds and the various amounts of each kind he has on hand, with which to construct his house. Then he can plan more intelligently just what type of house he will build and how large it will be. Likewise, in the case of a research paper, one must have all materials at hand first, so that he can prepare a logical outline of his paper.

The student will find his material much easier to sort and arrange if he will take his notes on 6x4 cards, with only one note to the card. Then he can, as he settles upon an outline for the presentation of his material, shuffle the cards about, putting all notes on each phase of the subject in one pile. Even when he gets all the material from the same book, he should have a different card for each phase of the subject.

The actual writing of the paper will follow more or less closely the topical outline which has been prepared. When material is quoted, either directly in quotations or indirectly as a paraphrase, a footnote should be used to give the source of the statement. Likewise, important facts not generally known should have footnotes.

In the case of a short direct quotation, the raised figure indicating a footnote should be placed after the quotation itself, in the case of a long quotation, introduced formally (with a colon), the raised figure should come immediately after the colon at the end of the introductory passage. When indirect passages are employed, the raised figure should come after the words introducing the paraphrase (if the paraphrase is long) or at the end of the paraphrase itself (if short). In the case of facts, the raised figure should come at the first natural break in the sentence after the fact is stated or immediately after the fact or figure itself (if embodied in a full sentence, at the end of the sentence).

A line should be skipped between the body of the paper and the first footnote on a given page. On this skipped line a mark should be drawn either all the way across the page or about an inch and one-half or two inches.

In typing, long quoted passages (those introduced formally) and footnotes should be single-spaced; the rest of the paper should be double-spaced.

Footnotes should contain: (1) the name of the author being quoted (with the first name or initials first), (2) the name of the book, and (3) the page. In the case of a magazine, the name of the particular article would come after the author's name and before the name of the magazine. Likewise, the volume and date would follow immediately after the name of the magazine. An encyclopedia reference should contain the name of the article and the name of the encyclopedia, together with the edition.

If a second footnote refers to the same source as that of the one immediately above it, the word ibid. (an abbreviation for ibidem, meaning the same) may be used. If another footnote intervenes (that is, a footnote referring to a different source), then ibid. cannot be used; the author's last name is used, followed by op. cit. (opere citato, meaning in the work cited), together with the new page number. If the reference is to the same page, loc. cit. (locco citato, meaning in the place cited) is used. Abbreviations of recognized standing are used freely in footnotes.

A bibliography at the end of the paper should list all the books, newspapers, magazines, encyclopedias, etc. having any material on the subject. These works should be listed, even though some of them are not used as sources for the research paper--if they are pertinent to the subject they should be listed. Observe carefully the forms given as models in this chapter.

Following are models of bibliography cards (to be used in making the preliminary survey for material) for books, newspapers, magazines, and encyclopedias:

Thorndyke, Lynn	The Jackson Daily Clarion-Ledger, Jan. 20, 1939,
A Short History of Civilization.	p. 10. (An AP survey of conditions in Russia.)
New York, MacMillan, 1926.	

Rihani, Ameen	"Socialism."
"Ibn Sa'ud of Arabia."	<u>Encyclopedia Americana</u> .
<u>Current History</u> , XLVI (1936), Sept., pp. 6-8.	New York and Chicago, 1934: XXV, 191.

Following are models of notes taken on cards:

"A Gothic cathedral faces east and west, the west front being the entrance! The west front is marked by three doorways flanked by towers on either side!" <u>and Greta Gray House</u> , p. 159.	"Domei (Japanese News Agency) declared Russia had broken the truce by constructing dugouts within the arranged no-man's land." --AP, <u>The Meridian Star</u> , August 15, 1938.
Among the Arabs themselves, however, religious activities continue to form the mainspring of nationalism. --S. A. Moharzel, "Arab Empire," <u>Current History</u> , XLV (1936), Nov., p. 64.	"Architecturally, it has been the experience of all, Envoykia that a national art is not attained until there has been a suitable centralized authority." --"Architecture," <u>Encyclopedia Britannica</u> , II, 276.

It is well here to review certain points concerning outlining. The main topics (and within any main topic, the subtopics) may be determined upon one or more of the following bases: kinds, types, uses, steps, causes, results, reasons, qualities, characteristics, aspects, advantages, benefits, methods, periods, parts, functions, effects, ways, etc.

Other points to remember are:

(1) In a topical outline, the main headings or subtopics are divided. Nothing can be divided into one part; there must be two or more. Therefore have two or more topics of the same rank.

(2) Capitalize the first word, but not others in the item unless otherwise necessary.

(3) Periods may be used after each topic or not.

Although the nature of the subject will determine largely the extent to which the various subheads will be divided, yet one should know the usual mechanical devices for indicating subheads in an extended outline. Therefore a lengthy outline form is presented below (the outline used by Clinton King, a freshman at East Central in 1937-38):

THE TEACHINGS OF KARL MARX

- I. Marxian Socialism.
 - A. The First Internationale.
 - B. Friederich Engels.
 - II. His Teachings.
 - A. Commodities.
 - 1. Definition.
 - 2. Exchange-value.
 - ~~Use~~Value.
 - 4. Value.
 - B. Labor.
 - 1. Definition.
 - 2. Labor power.
 - 3. Worker.
 - a. Necessary labor.
 - b. Surplus labor.
 - c. Wages.
 - C. Manufacture.
 - 1. Origin.
 - 2. Cooperation.
 - 3. Surplus value.
 - D. Capital.
 - 1. Kinds.
 - a. Constant.
 - b. Variable.
 - 2. Capitalistic accumulation.
 - a. Composition.
 - b. Accumulation.
 - c. Effects.
 - (1) Middle class.
 - (2) Low class.
 - 3. Primary accumulation.
 - a. Capitalist farmer.
 - b. Industrial capitalist.

Examples of proper methods of introducing material that requires footnotes are given below (they are taken from term papers written by Clinton King, Violet Allen, and Wendolyn Alford, 1937-38 freshmen):

Educational architecture is another important type, concerning which the Encyclopedia Britannica says:

"Under this heading are included all buildings in which knowledge is imparted and acquired, either directly by contact between . . ."

The typical Arab is described by the New International Encyclopedia in the following excerpt:

"The Arab is of medium stature, compactly built, and of brown complexion. Earnestness and pride are his chief characteristics..."

(NOTE THAT INDENTION OF THE ENTIRE QUOTATION MAKES THE QUOTATION STAND OUT EVEN MORE NOTICEABLY.)

XXXXXX XXXX
XXXXXX XXXX
12
The nominal wage, according to Marx, is the sum of money
which the worker receives for his day's labour.

The first space after the body of the term paper is left blank; the second space has a solid line on it about two inches long (or all the way across); the third space has the raised figure; and the fourth space has the first line of the footnote. Following are examples of footnotes of various types:

...fundamentally affected by the religious and social elements...

-
- 1 "Architecture," Encyclopedia Britannica, 14th ed., II, 276.
 - 2 Charles M. Robinson, Modern Civic Art, 4th ed., p. 125.
 - 3 S. A. Mahazel, "Arab Empire," Current History, XLV (1936), Nov., p. 64.
 - 4 The Commercial Appeal, January 20, 1939, p. 16.
 - 5 Ibid.
 - 6 Ibid., pp. 18-19.
 - 7 Britannica, loc. cit.
 - 8 Robinson, op. cit., pp. 140-204.
-

Following is a model for a bibliography (from "Singapore," a term paper by John C. Taylor, 1937-38 freshman):

- Allen, Nellie B. Asia. Atlanta, Ginn, 1916.
- Bingham, Albert P. Commercial Geography. Revised edition. Atlanta, Ginn, 1928.
- Encyclopedia Britannica. "Singapore." 14th ed. London and New York, 1932. XX, 709-710.
- New International Encyclopedia. "Singapore." London and New York, 1934. XXI, 133.
- Phayre, Ignatius. "Britain's Bulwark Against Japan." Current History, XLV (1937), March, pp. 75-80.
- Smith, Russell J. Commerce and Industry. New York, Holt, 1927.
-

Write a term paper, taking the following steps:

1. Tentatively decide on a subject.
2. Get the instructor's approval of the subject.
3. Make a preliminary survey of the material obtainable, using the 6x4 cards. You must have at least seven distinct sources of material.
4. If the material is sufficient, start taking notes; if not, select another subject. The term paper should contain from 1500 to 3000 words (7 to 15 typewritten pages or 12 to 25 pages in longhand).
5. After all the notes have been taken on 6x4 cards (those of some other size may be used, but they must be uniform and used on one side only), decide on a logical topical outline (consult with the instructor after making the outline). Then put the cards in piles, according to the main topics of the outline.
6. Write the paper. Type your paper if you can type. Otherwise, write it in longhand. Each person must do his own work throughout. Remember to double-space the main part of the paper and single-space direct quotations and footnotes. Number the pages with Arabic numerals in the upper right-hand corner of each sheet except the first. Write an introductory paragraph, stating the nature of the subject, before giving any source material. Summarize at the last.
7. Make a bibliography at the last.

8. On the front page put the title of the paper, centered from left to right, about two inches from the top; the word By in the middle of the sheet; and your name about two inches from the bottom.
9. Do not fold the papers. Fasten the pages together with a paper clip.
10. Introduce direct quotations and paraphrases. Use a sufficient number of transitional paragraphs to make the work coherent.
11. Approximately one-third of the paper should be direct quotations, one-third paraphrases (or indirect quotations), and one-third connecting paragraphs that analyze and summarize the source material. (These paragraphs, of course, are original.)
12. Consult freely the models on the reserve shelf--term papers written by freshmen previously.
13. Proofread carefully.
14. Rewrite after your paper has been corrected, being careful to correct all errors.

UNIT TWELVE--THE PARAGRAPH

Time--Four weeks--February 1-March 1.

A paragraph is a distinct section or subdivision of a discourse, chapter, or writing, whether of one or many sentences, that forms a rhetorical unit as dealing with a particular point of the subject, or as comprising the words of a distinct speaker.

The word paragraph is derived from the Greek words para (beside) plus graphein (to write)--hence to write beside. In writings prior to that of the Greeks, no attempt at division into phases of a subject was made at all, and, in many instances, the words and sentences were all run together without any attempt at division. The Greeks wrote their composition in a body without any paragraph indentation, but they made a horizontal line in the text where the paragraph, or break, should occur and likewise indicated the division on the margin (opposite the line in which the horizontal line occurred) by means of the mark which we still use to indicate a paragraph-- or . (Various modifications of the form of this mark were used.)

Not until the latter part of the seventeenth century was the paragraph indented. All of Bacon's essays were written in their original form in a solid body. Shakespeare's plays, likewise, were not divided into acts. Therefore we see that the paragraph, indicated by indentation, is of comparatively recent origin. Paragraphs should be indented from three-fourths of an inch to an inch in longhand; five or six spaces in typing; and an em (about a twelfth of an inch, formerly the length of the letter m) in printing.

Paragraphs are used: (1) To separate the direct quotations of different speakers; (2) to introduce a series of paragraphs on the same subject--that is, to introduce the subject treated in the succeeding paragraphs; (3) to form a transition between large units of a composition (each larger unit having, in many cases, several long paragraphs); (4) to summarize at the end of a long discourse the principal points made or the principal causes, reasons, or arguments advanced; (5) to indicate special stress or emphasis for a given idea; (6) to indicate a movement in time, in the case of narration; (7) to indicate a further step in a process, an explanation, etc., in an exposition; (8) to indicate a change in the point of view in description; (9) to indicate an avenue of attack or an additional proof in an argument; (10) to indicate any new item or any new series of items, such as examples, illustrations, analogies, details, explanations, etc., in any writing.

Paragraphs vary in length from one word (in the case of dialogue, for instance, in which the answer to some question is expressed in one word) to three hundred or more. The average length in modern writing (except in newspaper copy, in which the average is much lower) is approximately 125 words, whereas during the past three hundred years, until recent times, the average length was over two hundred words. The first five uses of paragraphs listed above usually require short paragraphs; the last five are usually longer. The length of a paragraph depends, logically, upon what needs to be treated in it. If one can put all of a closely related phase of a subject in a paragraph not exceeding two or three hundred words, he should do so. If, however, the

paragraph into a much larger number of words, the writer should decide upon a logical division of the phase of the subject being treated and make several paragraphs. Of course, even in the case of only one hundred words, the writer might divide into several paragraphs advantageously, depending upon how closely related the various elements of the composition are.

In many cases, especially in the more complex and longer paragraphs, there is one sentence which states the main or central thought in a paragraph. This sentence is called the topic sentence, because it states the topic with which the paragraph deals. The topic sentence comes, in most cases, at the first of the paragraph, having a generalizing or forecasting function; however, it may come last, with a concluding or summarizing function. Moreover, there may be no one sentence in the paragraph which states the topic; the general subject of the paragraph may be contained in two or more sentences--or it may be generally implied throughout the paragraph.

Well-constructed paragraphs should contain the old familiar triumvirate of good writing: unity, coherence, and emphasis. Do not let these terms overawe you; they are simple terms which can be comprehended with just a little application.

The word unity is derived from the Latin word unus, meaning one. Therefore, for a paragraph to have unity, it must be about a single main idea or have one point of view--or it may be about one phase of a main idea. Unity in a paragraph may be secured by a simple process: Put into the paragraph everything that belongs to the phase of the subject being treated and leave out everything that does not pertain to this phase of the subject. In other words, unity depends, primarily, upon the judicious selection of details.

All the sentences in a paragraph might be upon the same subject and yet be so loosely and unconnectedly put together that their meaning would be hard to grasp. Therefore a paragraph should contain coherence--such a connectedness of thought as to make the sentences clearly interrelated. The word coherence is derived from co- (together) plus haerentia (a state of sticking or adhering)--hence a state of sticking or adhering together. Coherence may be secured in the following ways: (1) by the use of transitional words and phrases (therefore, accordingly, moreover, in view of this fact, as a consequence, as previously stated, etc.); (2) by the repetition of key words or phrases near the beginning of succeeding sentences (note the employment of this method in the paragraphs on this page); (3) by following a previously stated method of development, either directly stated or implied (also illustrated in the first four paragraphs on this page); (4) by the employment of parallel structure in the sentences or in the clauses, by which the relationship of the parts is made clearer; (5) by proper subordination of elements within the sentence, thus making the relation of the parts to one another clearer; (6) generally speaking, by the logical arrangement of the material used--that is, by the general layout of the plan of development--whether by giving details, citing instances, assigning causes, etc.

Emphasis, which is defined by Webster's New International as "selective stress on particular parts or features to intensify impressiveness," may be more simply defined as the making of certain portions stand out so as to secure the attention of the reader. The word is derived from two Greek words: en (in) plus phainein (to make to appear)--hence to make to appear in--that is, to stand out. One may emphasize particular sentences or give greater significance to the entire paragraph by any one or a combination of the following means: (1) The sentence or part of a sentence to be emphasized should be placed just as near the beginning of the paragraph as possible. (2) In some cases, emphasis may be gained at the end of the paragraph whenever the climactic order of development has been employed, with the most striking statement or conclusion coming last. (3) The repetition of certain key words (or the repetition of the idea contained in them in other words) often adds stress to the idea advanced. (4) A series of balanced sentences in which comparison and contrast are employed will often focus attention upon the thought being developed. (5) A short sentence in the midst of long sentences often calls special attention to the idea which it expresses. (6) A short paragraph itself is a means of emphasizing the thought contained in it. (7) The employment of forceful words will lend emphasis to the entire paragraph in all instances--strong, direct language is always more impressive than weak, hazy terms.

The style to be employed in paragraph development depends

entirely upon the thought expressed. A scientific treatise, for instance, would necessarily use an exact and learned style--would employ abstruse and technical terms. An informal essay, on the other hand, would use common words and have a smooth and pleasant style of sentence structure. In all writings, however, the style may be made more effective by the use of variety in sentence structure--the use of some simple, some compound, and some complex sentences; some loose and some periodic; some balanced and some subordinated.

Euphony--eu (well) plus phone (sound)--the employment of a harmonious succession of words having a pleasing sound, especially when appropriate to the meaning, is a welcome quality in any writing, if properly and sparingly employed.

For full-length paragraphs, the following methods of development are the ones usually set forth by rhetoricians:

- (1) By repetition in other words.
- (2) By details, particulars, and statistics.
- (3) By refutation.
- (4) By general explication.
- (5) By analyses.
- (6) By assigning origin or cause.
- (7) By stating or prognosticating results.
- (8) By elimination.
- (9) By analogy.
- (10) By definition.
- (11) By giving reasons.
- (12) By comparison.
- (13) By contrast.
- (14) By examples or typical instances.

Of course, in many instances, two or three of the methods just listed may be employed in the development of a single paragraph. By no means should the student think that all paragraphs are developed by only one of the particular methods listed above. Combinations of these methods are the general rule. In fact, in the case of very short paragraphs--those involving dialogue, those for special stress, and those for transitional, introductory, and summarizing purposes--not any of the methods listed above are used.

The methods given are, by their terminology, self-explanatory.

Find and bring to class a paragraph illustrating each of three of these methods of paragraph-development. Pick out the topic sentence in each paragraph you select.

* * * * *

Divide the following written matter into paragraphs. Have a definite reason for the division in each instance. Supply all necessary punctuation.

He breathed heavily, walked slowly to the corner of the room, secured a jug of liquid, which by its odor I perceived to be kerosene, and emptied the contents on the floor. The men of the community he continued will be as startled when you tell your story as they were awhile ago when I, letting them tie me, made a spectacular escape, just to show them a little trick. I've gone through a mighty transformation within the past hour, my boy. My soul has been changed. I've dodged sheriffs, detectives, and decent people so long that my life has become one constant attempt to avoid apprehension. What could I do to help you I asked sincerely. Say a blessing on me presently he replied. Lord, help Brad Merrill, I cried, breaking into a sob. Here, take your gun and go he commanded me, shoving me out of the window into the still raging storm. But here I remonstrated, turning back and calling to him not to kill himself--that we would forgive him, that I would help him make his escape, and that he could live usefully somewhere. But it was of no use, for, looking through the window, I saw a blaze flame forth from where he had poured the kerosene, and, ~~XXXX~~ an instant later I saw, by the light of the flame, a gun close upon his temple. A loud report told me that within a few minutes the body of the sole inmate of the cabin before me would be consumed by the raging flames.

UNIT THIRTEEN--DESCRIPTION

Time--Three weeks--March 3-22.

Description is of two kinds--scientific and artistic. The first, as the name suggests, is a detailed factual description,

the purpose of which is to inform. The second does not seek to inform, but attempts to create a suggestive, atmospheric impression, resembling reality, but with all the conflicting sensations ordinarily present in a real situation eliminated, so as to secure a dominant mood or a totality of effect.

It is artistic description with which we shall be primarily concerned, for this type of description has a more universal appeal and is the one requiring the greater artistry of execution. However, in order to sharpen our powers of observation, we would do well to employ scientific description at first, holding ourselves to a coherent enumeration of the actual details of an object, a person, a picture, a scene, etc., without any effort to create a central impression. Afterwards, we shall attempt to use details merely as a means of creating, by their proper selection and arrangement, an artistic presentation of an image or a series of images.

In attempting to create a sense impression by means of description, one should bear in mind that suggestive details may be presented not only by means of visual phenomena, but also by means of impressions derived from the senses of sound, smell, taste and touch.

Description is usually the handmaid of narration. It can be mastered better at first; however, by detaching it from its ordinary setting and analyzing the elements that make it effective.

In describing something, one must always keep in mind the point of view, both physical and emotional. By the first is meant the actual relation of the writer to the thing described--whether above, below, at the side, near, afar, etc. Only those details should be revealed which could be ascertained by the writer from his position. Of course, the writer might employ the omnipresent viewpoint, by which he would not be stationed at any particular point. Even then, however, the shifts from part to part of the object being described should be smooth and natural.

The emotional viewpoint should also be consistent. Whatever the mood one is attempting to create--one of melancholy, delight, grandeur, decadence, etc.--all the details should heighten the general effect desired.

It must be kept in mind that adjectives and adverbs are not the only parts of speech by which one can create the desired sense impressions--in fact, these parts of speech should not be overworked; verbs and nouns may be more expressive in some instances.

One must be on his guard in writing descriptions to avoid hackneyed and pretentious language. The effect should not give the appearance of being striven for, but should appear to be spontaneous and natural.

In this regard, it cannot be too strongly emphasized that the first and most important requisite for artistic or imaginative writing is the visualizing of the images and the experiencing of the sensations and impressions by the writer himself before an attempt is made to convey them to others. The more accurately an impression is perceived and the more intensely the mood is felt, the greater will be the likelihood that the description will elicit the same reaction from the reader.

All the details actually seen should not be enumerated, however, but only those that will blend well with the dominant mood or the central effect.

Of course, after one has actually seen clearly the most important details by which he can create the desired impression, he still must be very careful to choose apt words and construct effective sentences in order to convey to the reader his impression. Therefore one should always be on the alert to increase his vocabulary, so that he will be able to select the word that has the exact meaning and the proper connotation for the idea to be ~~expressed~~ expressed.

The last injunction would be this: Never use a word about which you have doubts--as to its meaning, its aptness, its effectiveness; use your dictionaries, noting especially the "discriminated synonyms" of the word in question.

.....

- Write:
- (1) a scientific description on a simple subject.
 - (2) a scientific description on a complex subject.
 - (3) an artistic description on a simple subject.
 - (4) an artistic description on a complex subject.

EXPOSITION

Time--Two weeks--March 24-April 5.

Exposition is the name applied to discourse having as its primary aim the explaining of something--(1) what something is, (2) how something happens, is done, or is made, (3) why something develops, behaves, or reacts as it does.

Exposition is concerned greatly with facts, it is true, but not with a mere enumeration of facts--such would be scientific description. The facts must be given meaning and interpretation in order to be exposition. Description appeals mainly to the imagination (that is, artistic description); exposition to the intellect.

On the other hand, exposition does not follow through necessarily to a full account of some period of time; some process, or some tracing of an idea; nor does it attempt to convince, convert, or persuade. In the first instance, it would become narration; in the second, argument. Exposition usually takes a cross-section of a situation and relates the facts in such a way as to analyze and explain.

Exposition may be ~~more~~ scientific with a view to giving objective facts that will inform, or it may be familiar or personal, with a view to giving subjective opinions or ideas--as one's hobbies, aversions, reminiscences, etc.

The first essential in writing an exposition is for one to have clearly in mind just what he is to say; the second is to state this fact or idea accurately and coherently in terms the reader can easily understand (and enjoy, in most cases). With the aspects of unity, coherence, and emphasis the student is already familiar. A fourth essential might be listed as interest--the particular style (choice of words and manner of setting forth one's ideas) employed so as to insure the holding of the reader's attention.

The various methods of paragraph-development listed in the unit on the Paragraph are especially applicable in developing paragraphs in exposition.

Following are suggestive subjects for writing expositions:

- Reasons for the Breakdown of the League of Nations
- Why Germany Follows Hitler
- The Meaning of Transcendentalism
- How Quick-Freezing Is Accomplished
- The Value of My Knowledge of Chemistry
- The Romance of Being a Freshman
- Explanation of -----Theory
- Explanation of a Theory of Mine
- My Religious Conceptions

NARRATION

Time--Two weeks--April 7-19.

Narration is a form of discourse consisting of a "succession of happenings." When this "succession of happenings" is a mere series of events, we have simple narratives, such as accounts of travel, adventure, incidents, or personal experience; speech, diaries, or letters; reports; newspaper copy; ballads, epics, or other narrative poetry; history. When the "succession of happenings" is so entwined that the events lend themselves to artistic treatment, we have plotted narrative, such as the short story and novel. Biography and autobiography, although not strictly plotted, are, nevertheless, usually artistic and are thus of a higher quality than the simple narratives.

Narratives may be told in the first person, with only the things which the teller could logically have seen, heard, felt, smelt, or tasted, together with his own thoughts and emotions, coming into play. Narratives may also be told in the third person, or from the omniscient viewpoint, with the author able to give any action at any time or place, in addition to the thoughts and emotional reactions of any character. Drama is set forth in its special dramatic form.

Short stories, novels, plays, and some poems must have: plot--the plan or main story; characters--each must have some essential part to play and not be ~~drum~~ immediately; setting--the time

and place; and theme--the "point" to the story or the "attitude toward life."

Characterization--describing and delineating the characters--would deal--incidentally, of course--with the appearance, surroundings, expression, manner, gesture, and voice of the characters. These aspects, of course, would be introduced a little at a time.

Dialogue is an important element in narration, being valuable as a means of characterizing, advancing the plot, and giving atmosphere. Closely related to dialogue are the special types of speaking known as soliloquy and monologue.

In narration there must be movement--action which carries the plot forward. In simple narration, the plot is commonly advanced by the chronological method--telling of the events in the events in the order of their occurrence. This method is occasionally employed in plotted narratives, but the usual method is to start in medias res--in the middle of things. The plot starts unraveling at what is commonly termed the dramatic event, and a backswing or a series of backswings catch the events occurring prior to the dramatic event. These threads are either caught up first, with the movement then continuing from the dramatic event or woven into the fabric, one or more at a time, as the plot progresses.

Whatever method is employed, there must be suspense and motivation--a logical reason for each character's actions.

Suitable subjects for simple narratives are:

The Most Embarrassing (or Fearful, Disgusting, Important, Enjoyable, etc.) Moment of My Life
An Incident of Early Childhood
A College Incident
A Newspaper story of some campus occurrence

At least two simple narratives, one short story, and one poem will be required in this unit.

ARGUMENT

Time--Two weeks--April 21-May 3.

There are two kinds of argument, constructive and destructive--or proof and refutation.

It is well, first, to define certain terms used in constructive argument. The formal statement of the subject is called the proposition. An example of the old form of stating the proposition: "Resolved, That the Carnegie units for admission to college should be supplanted by a comprehensive entrance examination." Now, in most cases, the words "Resolved, That" would be left off and the simple statement used: "The Carnegie units..."

Both sides, the affirmative and the negative, should, in most instances, agree on the issues--the questions about the proposition, the answers to which will determine the way the proposition should be decided. In the proposition stated above, for instance, the following would be acceptable issues: First, has the present method of admitting students to college by means of the Carnegie units proved unsatisfactory? Secondly, would the proposed comprehensive entrance examinations be the best means of meeting any defects in the present set-up? Thirdly, would the proposed plan be practicable of execution?

The one side would answer the questions in the affirmative and the other in the negative. These statements would become in the brief (a sentence outline of the entire argument) the main contentions. The evidence and reasoning substantiating these contentions would be called proofs. The issues do not appear in the brief, but they do occur in the argument proper.

A brief has very few periods. So long as any proof under a subhead, the word for is used and the sentence continued. Following is a short brief on the proposition already stated:

- I. The present method of admitting students to college by means of the Carnegie units has proved unsatisfactory; for
- A. The standards of grading in different high schools are so diverse that the passing marks giving credit are unreliable; for
- 1. A D grade in one school might be equivalent to only an F in another.

- B. The standards of grading among teachers within the same school system are likewise so diverse as to invalidate the grade marks; for
1. We have records of innumerable cases in which the same paper has been scored by different teachers with grades ranging from A to F.
- II. The proposed comprehensive entrance examinations would be the best means of meeting the defects in the present set-up; for
- A. All persons entering a college would be admitted by the same yardstick.
 - B. A greater incentive to learn instead of merely passing would be afforded students in high school; for
 1. Their rating with the high school teacher would not help them on the entrance examination.
 2. Their athletic career and other related activities would not bolster their chances of being able to enter college.
 3. They would realize that they should learn for permanency instead of for an approaching examination.
- III. The proposed plan would be practicable of execution; for
- A. The making of questions, the giving of examinations, and the scoring of the papers would be in the hands of a few carefully chosen experts.
 - B. If one failed the examination, he could study again in high school or independently and take again the next year.

Conviction rests upon testimonial evidence produced by witnesses or by competent, unbiased authorities; upon circumstantial evidence, in which it is shown that many likely proofs point to the same conclusion; or upon pure reasoning.

There are two general types of reasoning, deductive and inductive. The first is reasoning from a general principle to a particular application; the second is attempting to reach a general conclusion from particular instances. According to Webster's Collegiate, "Deduction is analytic; induction, synthetic."

In deductive reasoning, we have a major premise, a statement of the general principle; the minor premise, the placing of a particular within the class encompassed by the major premise; and a conclusion, the application of the general principle to the particular. Thus:

Major premise--All collies, if properly trained, are good sheep dogs.

Minor premise--This puppy is a collie.

Conclusion--This puppy, if properly trained, will grow into a good sheep dog.

This logical scheme or analysis of a formal argument is known as a syllogism.

In inductive reasoning, on the other hand, ~~WEAK~~ we would say: That collie and that collie and that collie and that collie, etc. are good sheep dogs; therefore all collies are good sheep dogs.

After people are convinced, intellectually, in an argument, they sometimes must be induced by persuasion, an appeal to the emotions, to act upon this conviction.

.....

In destructive argument, or rebuttal, one must be able to bring to notice, either to the person doing the arguing or to those deciding the question, the particular errors in the opponent's argument, whether errors of facts, testimony, or reasoning. In the case of facts, the logical method of meeting the error would be to give the real facts for the erroneous statements. In the case of error in testimony, one could show that the witness was either untruthful, incompetent, or prejudiced and biased. In the case of errors in reasoning, one would need to resort to one or more of a large number of devices.

In the case of deductive argument, one could show that the major premise was merely assumed to be true--that it had never been proved; he could point out known exceptions to the principle stated in the major premise. (Of course, in ordinary argument, one's opponent would not state his reasoning in terms of major premise, minor premise, and conclusion; but in order to analyze his process of reasoning and point out the error, one could arbitrarily break his reasoning process down into a syllogistic form.)

In the case of the error's lying in the minor premise, it could be shown that the particular did not properly come within the general class named in the major premise. Thus, in this

syllogism--

Major premise--All anarchists should be deported.

Minor premise--John Smith is an anarchist.

Conclusion--John Smith should be deported.

--it could be shown that John Smith is not an anarchist.

It can be pointed out in some cases that the reasoning process runs amuck in drawing an unwarranted conclusion from the major and minor premises. Thus--

Major premise--All thieves should be punished.

Minor premise--John Smith is a thief, for he stole a chicken.

Conclusion--John Smith should be sent to the penitentiary for ten years.

--the conclusion jumps the track from the process of reasoning employed in the major and minor premises. Of course, the statement actually made by the opponent might be: "John Smith is a thief and should be sent to the penitentiary for ten years." The syllogism merely states the implied reasoning.

In inductive reasoning, the most common error is the drawing of conclusions based upon too few instances. In a case of this kind, examples could be given of cases that do not properly come under the generalization.

In all types of reasoning, one should be on the lookout for the employment of loose terms applied indiscriminately--"politician," "humbug," "mossback," "radical," "bolshewist," etc. In such cases, the opponent should be pinned down to a more specific term or to a clarification of the term used.

A common device employed by people defected along one line of argument is to jump to a phase of the question only slightly related to the main issue, establish a case which, it might be, nobody would dispute, and then assume to have won the argument. Thus if A and B are arguing the feasibility of homestead exemption and A attacks the proposition upon the ground that Hugh White, the person who first proposed it, is a rich man--it is clear that this irrelevant fact can have no bearing upon the main issue. The dodging of the issue should be pointed out and the true issue reaffirmed.

Another frequent fallacy is that of ignoring alternatives. When a person says that one can go to college and get an education or stay at home and be an ignoramus, he is clearly ignoring still another possibility--that the person can stay at home and study independently and become educated.

A false analogy is misleading and should be detected and corrected. The old saying, "You can't change a leopard's spots," is sometimes used erroneously to imply that a wayward person cannot be reformed. The spots of a leopard are physically inherited characteristics. The habits of a person are not physically inherited.

Sometimes the cause and effect of a thing are confused. "John is lazy because his employer won't raise his wages." That statement might be true, but the likelihood is that the employer will not raise John's wages because he is lazy. All superstitions are examples of mistaken or confused cause and are usually based upon the unsound reasoning found in post hoc, ergo propter hoc--after this, therefore on account of it. Bad luck comes after breaking a mirror--therefore on account of breaking a mirror!

Other matters to be watched in reasoning, or in detecting errors in another person's reasoning, are: (1) the use of statistics with a finality, without making sure of the reliability of the figures--by whom obtained, how obtained, and how certified; (2) the quoting of proverbs and old sayings without any attempt to prove that they themselves are true in the first place, or that they apply in a given instance; (3) argumentum ad hominem--argument to the man, his prejudices and interests--for instance, against the proposal that wages be raised in the South using the fact that negroes would thus benefit.

Thus it is seen that the main fallacies are those of: (1) general assumption, (2) hasty generalization, (3) loose terms, (4) dodging the issue, (5) ignoring alternatives, (6) false analogy, (7) mistaken or confused cause, (8) statistical fallacy, (9) proverbs, (10) argumentum ad hominem.

.....
Prepare a debate on the affirmative or negative side of one of the following questions:

East Central Junior College should have a student government.
The Homestead Exemption Bill should be repealed.
The school term for negroes in Mississippi should be equal to that for whites.

APPENDIX

Review Exercises on Various UnitsPronunciation

The following words are commonly mispronounced. Check in your dictionaries on the correct pronunciation, set this pronunciation down opposite the word, and drill on the group until you can pronounce every word correctly:

alias-----
alumni-----
askance-----
attache-----
auxiliary-----
bona fide-----
caisson-----
calliope-----
carburetor-----
chastisement-----
chiropodist-----
coma-----
decollete-----
denouement-----
discipline-----
dowager-----
eczema-----
ephemeral-----
exigency-----
experiment-----
fiance-----
finale-----
forehead-----

genuine-----
grimace-----
height-----
hiccoughs-----
hysteria-----
inherent-----
kaki-----
longevity-----
mischievous-----
penalize-----
pretty-----
quay-----
sine die-----
status-----
tepid-----
tete-a-tete-----
theater-----
tortoise-----
vis-a-vis-----
viva-----
viva voce-----
von-----
zoology-----

Add ten words of your own to the list--words that you have noticed to be incorrectly mispronounced by students or people in general:

Spelling

Following are a few rules of spelling which, if mastered, should be helpful to one throughout life in deciding upon the correct spelling of words falling within the scope of these rules:

1. Doubling of the Final Consonant

Words of one syllable (or of more than one syllable, provided the accent comes on the last syllable), ending in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel. EXAMPLES: stop--stopped, stopping; bat--batted, batting; swim--swimming; nod--nodded, nodding; concur--concurred, concurring; begin--beginning; confer--conferred, conferring (but conference--the accent shifts back to the first syllable).

Tell why each of the following words would not come under the rule: call, mark, shoot, sail, benefit,

Acquit and similar words having qu would appear to have a double vowel coming before the final consonant, but such is not the case. The qu (both letters taken together) constitutes a consonant. Therefore we have acquitted and acquitting. (Note, just as an interesting sidelight, that no letter except u ever follows q.)

Travel, worship, revel, and kidnap may be spelled with the final consonant doubled or not doubled when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added, but the single consonant is preferable.

An exception to the general rule is forgettable--or unforgettable.

Write the past and present participle to the following and be able to explain the spelling in the light of the rule:

deed	resign	sit	commit	marvel	drown
send	show	defer	perish	recall	over

Form the comparative and superlative degrees of the following adjectives and be able to explain your spelling in the light of the rule: sad, bad, mad, kind, rich, poor, fair, tender, small, fat, hot, near, wet.

2. Dropping or Retaining of Silent E

The general rule is to drop a final silent e before a suffix beginning with a vowel and retain it before a suffix beginning with a consonant. EXAMPLES: advise--advised, advising, advisable, adviser (but advisement); arrange--arranged, arranging (but arrangement); hate--hated, hating (but hateful).

EXCEPTIONS:

(1) Isolated words: to the first part of the rule--hoeing, toeing, shoeing, dyeing, tingeing, singeing; to the second part--awful, argument, duly, truly, acknowledgment, judgment.

(2) In words where the final silent e is preceded a c or a g and where the suffix begins with an ~~e~~ or an o, the ~~e~~ is retained in order to preserve the soft sound of the c or g. EXAMPLES: changeable, manageable, damageable, serviceable, noticeable, outrageous, advantageous, umbrageous.

Notice the spelling of these words and be able to apply the rule in each case: ninety, lateness, safety, divinely, rueful, security, elevator, inclination, movable, movement, horseshoeing, peaceable, courageous.

3. Ei and Ie Words

In spelling words containing the ei or ie diphthongs--if the sound of the diphthong is long e, then apply the old rhyme: "i before e, except after c"; if the diphthong has any other sound (long a, long i, short e, short i), then spell it ei.

EXCEPTIONS: to the first part of the rule--either, neither, ~~financier~~ leisure, species, weird, seize, seizure, plebeian, madeira, seignior, seizin; to the second part --friend, sieve, ancient.

Notice the spelling of the following words and be able to apply the rule in each case:

eight	freight	heigh	neigh	neighbor	sleigh
weight	deign	feign	feint	heinous	seine
heir	heiress	inveigh	obeissance	reign	rein
skein	veil	vein	sleight	height	heifer
foreign	counterfeit	inveigh	ceiling	conceit	deceit
conceive	deceive	perceive	receipt	afield	belief
bier	field	fiend	frieze	lief	leifer
priest	shield	shriek	thief	wield	yield
achieve	aggrieve	apiece	besiege	chief	fief
fierce	grief	grieve	liege	mien	niece
piece	pier	pierce	relief	reprieve	retrieve
siege	tier	tierge	bandolier	brigadier	cashier
cavalier	chandelier	chevalier	chiffonier		cuirassier
financier	gondolier	grenadier	halberdier		

4. Plurals of Words Ending in Y

If the final y of a ~~e~~ noun is preceded by a consonant, to form the plural change the y to i and add es; if the y is preceded by a vowel, form the plural by adding only s. EXAMPLES: lily--lilies; alloy--alloys; boy--boys; alley--alleys; fly--flies; berry--berries; toy--toys. Proper nouns always just add an s --for example, Kelly--Kellys.

5. Suffixes Added to Words Ending in Y

Words ending in y preceded by a consonant usually change y to i before a suffix. EXAMPLES: busy--business; easy--easily; harmony--harmonious; pity--pitiful; envy--enviable; merry--merriment.

NOTE: Final y is retained before the suffix -ing --worrying, pacifying, hurrying.

6. Same Letters in Words as in Prefixes and Suffixes

The final letter of a word or prefix is generally retained before the same letter in the suffix or root. EXAMPLES: illegible, equally, approve, dissatisfied, misspent, suddenness.

7. Prefixes and Suffixes in ~~XXXXXX~~ LL

A word ending in ll generally drops one l when used as a prefix or suffix. EXAMPLES: already, fearful, fulfill, skillful, almost, altogether.

8. Combinations in ai or ia

Words containing ~~XXXX~~ ai or ia combinations are spelled ia if the sound is yuh; ai, if the sound is flat--an. EXAMPLES: brilliant, Christian, captain, certain.

9. Suffixes After Words Ending in C

Words ending in c add k before a suffix beginning with i, li, or y. EXAMPLES: picnic--picnicking, picnicked; traffic--trafficking; panic--panicky.

10. General Rules

- (a) Pronounce the word distinctly.
- (b) Analyze the word by syllables. For instance, if you are called upon to spell transubstantiation, just analyze and pronounce in your mind as you spell--tran-sub-stan-ti-ation.
- (c) Note carefully certain peculiarities about words. Visualize the words until the wrong form would not look right--for example, yacht, zephyr, rhythm. Note especially differences between words sounding or looking almost alike--diseased, deceased; breath, breathe.
- (d) Notice root forms, prefixes, and suffixes--then put them together properly. In spelling imagination, first see imagine; then drop the final silent e according to rule and add -ation. In spelling familiar, first see family; then change the y to i and add ~~XXXX~~ -ar.
- (e) Never write words down unless you are reasonably sure of their spelling. If in doubt, consult a dictionary. Otherwise, wrong spellings become habits hard to break.

Vocabulary Building

All sections in Freshman English will cooperate in compiling an exhaustive list of prefixes and suffixes, especially Latin and Greek forms, which will be helpful in recognizing ~~XXXXXX~~ the meaning of words derived from them. About six students will be assigned to each letter in the alphabet, and a page-by-page study of the dictionary will be made. Then all the prefixes and suffixes will be compiled into one list, arranged alphabetically. This list will be mimeographed and each student supplied with a copy.

DICTION and Grammar

Keep a list for a week of incorrect usages in diction or grammar made orally or in written work by students or teachers. Indicate the person making the error. Your report will be kept confidential, but the offender will be told of his error or errors. Each student's name will appear on a special ~~card~~, and as errors are turned in, they will be ~~XXXXXX~~ listed ~~XXXXXX~~ on the person's ~~XXXXX~~ card. At the end of the week, each person will be presented with his card. In this way, many errors made by students (and teachers) will be called to their attention for correction in their daily language habits.

Sentences, Paragraphs, and the Four Forms of Discourse

In addition to the corrections made by the teacher and the graders, special arrangements will be made for students to check one another's papers--in class and out of class--for errors in sentence structure, clarity of expression, unity, coherence, emphasis, capitalization, punctuation, grammar, diction, spelling, and other items.

Capitalization

In the sentences below change capitals to small letters and vice versa as necessary. Mark Correct those sentences that need no changes. Be able to give rules and reasons for your changes.

1. He fought in the Battle of Gettysburg on July 4, 1863, serving under the Command of colonel David E. Stuart.
2. All along the Streets of the South side of town the merrymakers were enjoying the Summer showers.
3. The people in the central-west depend on wheat much as the people in the south do on cotton.
4. Since the Doctor could not be found, we decided to apply First Aid.
5. He was in High School six years before he became a Freshman at Drake college.
6. The jewish people were persecuted by the germans; consequently they sought Refuge in Foreign Countries.
7. The Teacher said, "do not stop until you have finished all those french exercises; then you may go to the english classroom."
8. I asked Father to help my Brother and me carry the horses to uncle Ralph.
9. He has just returned from washington, where he heard the president speak on what the administration expected to do about the constitution of the united states.
10. On good friday he went to the hunt memorial church, where he studied the apostles' creed and worshiped the supreme being.
11. In the senate we heard The Honorable William E. Borah referring to the speech of Portia in The Merchant of Venice and to an Editorial in the Washington daily post.

Punctuation

Supply all necessary punctuation in the following sentences:

1. If you do not go he will believe that you do not trust him on the other hand we all know that Garvin his opponent will resent your being there.
2. On Wednesday December 4 1939 we landed at Quebec Canada for a three days visit and on Saturday December 7 we set sail for London England where we expected to pass the winter.
3. He followed the suspect down the sidewalk across the street and into the barber shop where he saw him enter into conversation with Dr John B Sutton and David Green Jr two of his close friends.
4. The following men served on the committee J E Goldman Ph D Tulane University F J Brown M D of Vanderbilt Hospital Nashville Mrs Della Stuart welfare worker of Tate County.
5. Where the bewildered man asked is the what do you call them the internes ward
6. Ive often heard of him the clerk replied but I dont believe hes ever been in here to shop.
7. This book of yours was returned here last night Sims told him
8. We were nearly freezing the weather was four degrees below zero when we reached Nome where we had Mr Jones leg treated.
9. At one sitting he read Shellys Adonais Keats Ode to a Nightingale and Robert Louis Stevensons Treasure Island
10. Remember that the word concur has the accent falling on the last syllable and that the past form is spelled with two rs.

Other Mechanics

Write the plural of each of the following: toy, shelf, basis, monkey, 7, cupful, tax, decr, cherry, banjo.

Indicate which of the following abbreviations are proper and desirable in general writing: Mr., lb., Calif., Fri., Y. M. C. A., Hon. Gray, No. 781, B. C., this A. M., exam., Rev. A. C. Rice, math., St., Oct., Hist. Dent., mdse., Ph. D., K. K. K., 6:15 a. m., a wk.

Indicate which of the following numbers are correct for formal writing: in 1932, 10,624 words, 17d, \$7,000,000, 8 o'clock, 8:35 a. m., on May 16, 1934, Chapter IV, page 68.

Indicate in each instance below where the word should be divided at the end of a line: arrangement, straight, concert, fellow, calling, perfidy, called, gosling, distract, threaten.

HOW TO STUDY

By

Leon Eubanks

As prerequisites to study, you must have:

- I. Materials for study--at least a textbook and a good dictionary. Notebooks, pencils, pen, reference books, etc. are sometimes desirable. You should own separately your textbooks and a good dictionary, so as to have them available when you get ready to study.
- II. A place free from distractions--disturbing noises, conversation, foul odors, intense heat or cold, etc.
- III. Sufficient time to think consecutively, read the assignment carefully, find the meaning to all unknown words, and drill on unknown parts. Numbers I and II may be secured in the dormitory by following these rules:
 1. Do not loaf during the time that you have set aside for study--during all vacant periods, half of the afternoon, and all of the study period at night.
 2. Do not allow loafing in your room during these times. If you will not encourage the persistent loafer, he will not come to your room to tell his boastful tales of self-praise. If you are at work when he calls, remain busy. If he refuses to take the hint, just ask him in a polite way to come again when you are not busy. If all polite methods fail, use the "strong arm" method. The "windjammer" is a thief, stealing your time. You cannot afford to let him cause you to fail just in order to spare his feelings. He will have more respect for you in the long run if you will be firm with him. If it is your roommate that you have trouble with in this regard, then have a straight-from-the-shoulder talk with him. If he still shows no sign of improving, then change roommates.
 3. Keep your books, notebooks, pencils, and other personal possessions where you can find them instantly. Much time is frequently lost in searching for misplaced articles.
 4. Work under pressure. Allot yourself a certain amount of time for the preparation of a lesson and make yourself prepare the lesson by then.
- IV. A healthy body free from undue fatigue, poisons, headaches, drowsy feelings, etc. Your mind cannot function properly in an unfit body. In order to keep in the best possible physical condition, you should observe the following health rules:
 1. Avoid dust of all kinds--in your rooms, in the hallways, on the roads. Use floor sweep on your floors; mop them occasionally; dust with a damp cloth your window sills, radiators, tables, dresser, door ledges, etc.
 2. Eat plenty of wholesome food at regular hours. Do not eat between meals. If you must eat between meals, eat fruits--never candy or sweet foods.
 3. Sleep regularly from eight to nine hours a day.
 4. Sleep with your windows open. At all times get plenty of fresh air.
 5. Take sufficient exercise every day--preferably in the form of play.
 6. See that all organs for excreting poisons from the body--the lungs, the pores of the skin, the bowels, and the kidneys--function normally and regularly. Otherwise, the body will become loaded with poisons.
 7. Do not deliberately take poisons into the body--for instance, in the form of tobacco, whiskey, and coffee. You merely cloud your brain and decrease your clarity of thinking when you do.
 8. Drink at least six full glasses of water a day. Drink one each morning upon arising. Plenty of

water will work through the system and help eliminate poisons through the pores of the skin and through the kidneys. Plenty of water also helps prevent constipation.

9. Take a hot sponge bath every day (or at least every other day), rinsing in cold water. The former opens and cleanses the pores of the skin; the latter closes the pores, thus helping to prevent one's taking a cold. The cold shower also serves as a tonic to the entire body.
10. Brush your teeth at least three times a day. During epidemics of cold, etc., it is well to gargle with a good mouth wash.
11. Chew your food slowly and well.
12. Wash your hands before eating.
13. Never put a pencil, a piece of straw, your finger nail, or any other extraneous matter in the mouth.
14. Never rub your eyes with your hands. Use a clean cloth to lift a particle from the eye.
15. Do not study in bed. If you are too comfortable, you will become drowsy and possibly go to sleep. Then, too, the strain is greater on your eyes.
16. Read with the light coming from behind over your left shoulder. Never read while facing a light. In fact, avoid facing a bright light at all. Your eyes are the organs through which you must learn seventy-five per cent of your knowledge. Therefore be careful in the use of them.

V. You must keep yourself in a healthy mental and emotional state. The following suggestions will help:

1. Remember that all things are relative; that is, what seems to you to be of the utmost importance now will be as nothing a year from now, or what appears to you unimportant now may affect your well-being the remainder of your life. Try to learn how to distinguish between trifles and important matters. Ask of any course of action that may be worrying you: Will this matter, whatever the results, affect my real character or my reputation for integrity? Will it affect my health? Will it be injurious to my fellowman? If all these questions can be answered in the negative, then you have nothing serious to worry about. If it is a mere matter to affect your present happiness, you need not worry long, for many other things will bring you happiness. If the questions are answered in the affirmative, then start immediately to remedy the situation by every means available. Having done your best to remedy the situation, then take whatever results may come in a philosophical manner. DON'T WORRY.
2. Be courteous and agreeable. People, in turn, will like you better and will make life easier and pleasanter for you.
3. Associate with members of the opposite sex. You will be lacking in certain of the social graces and will not be emotionally balanced if you do not. However, do not let your association with the opposite sex take too much of your time and interest. Above all, keep your mind clear of thoughts of love while you are trying to study.
4. Devote a short period of approximately thirty minutes a day to meditative planning for your immediate and remote life. Attempt to solve whatever problems you may have--financial, love, intellectual, scholastic. Then when the period is ended, close your mind to any further consideration of these problems until the same period the next day. At least keep them from your mind while you are attempting to study.
5. Never go to sleep with hatred in your heart for anybody. Remember that the person toward whom you hold an ill will is an erring human creature like yourself, but that he is also made in the similitude of God Himself. Because of the very fact that he is a human being he should still command your sympathy, no matter what his faults, vices, and sins may be. You may have to refuse to have dealings with the person or you may despise certain of his ways, but you should never hate the man himself.

6. Go to Sunday school and church. You need the experience to serve as a leaven for your daily life.
7. Spend at least ten minutes each day in silent prayer. You will feel a peace and contentment which otherwise would be lacking.

After these prerequisites have been met, you are in a fit condition to start studying. Following are the steps to be taken in the actual process of studying:

- I. Make a hasty preview of the chapter, the unit, or the assignment--whatever the unit of study. In this way your mind will become properly oriented to the subject matter. You will see the general topics treated and the methods of treatment.
- II. Put yourself into a questioning attitude regarding the subject matter. Formulate within your mind certain questions which your previous knowledge of the subject would naturally suggest. The nature of the questions is not of as much importance as is the mental state adopted by the formulation of just any questions. Learning comes best as the answer to a question.
- III. Study intensively the entire assignment, keeping in mind the questions formulated in the beginning. As you read and study the nature of your questions will change, and you will likely have a different set of questions at the last from those with which you began. But the questions are the riveting forces to hold your mind to the subject. Modify them, change them entirely--but always have questions in your mind. Only in this way can concentration be maintained. Make marginal notes, underscore, and otherwise indicate main points.
- IV. While reading carefully the assignment, look up in a good dictionary the meaning of all unknown words. You cannot understand the whole unless you understand the parts; and the words, in this instance, are the parts. You will go slowly at first in this task; but eventually, as your vocabulary increases, you will increase the speed with which you can read, for the words not known will decrease as your vocabulary increases.
- V. When you have finished reading carefully the entire assignment (having looked up all unknown words), review, in somewhat the same manner that you made the initial preview. Make a topical outline or set down a series of catchwords and phrases by which you may recall the newly learned matter. As you again go over the main headings, question yourself as to whether you know thoroughly the contents. Some parts you will understand; others you will not grasp fully.
- VI. Restudy the unknown parts. Here is where the important principle of drill will come into play. Make a "key" of the matter to be learned and drill until the matter is well established in your mind. Drill becomes the most effective whenever unknown facts are associated with known facts. Drill on the unknown facts until they are clear in your mind.
- VII. Summarize into a few sentences the central idea contained in the assignment. Not until you can do this do you really know your lesson. Previously you have gathered the ends together; now you must tie them. This tying can best be done in a succinct summary, either merely formulated in your mind or written down.

Recapitulating, you need to comply with certain prerequisites before you can hope to study well: (1) own and have readily available the "tools" of study; (2) secure a place free from distractions; (3) provide sufficient time for proper study; (4) so far as possible keep a healthy body; (5) maintain a mental and emotional state of healthfulness.

The actual process of studying requires the taking of seven distinct steps: (1) a preview; (2) putting oneself into a questioning attitude; (3) intensive study; (4) use of the dictionary; (5) a review; (6) a restudy with drill; (7) a summary.